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# THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY



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# THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

**A Journal of Investigation and Discussion in the Field of Library Science**

Established by The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago with the Co-operation of The American Library Association, The Bibliographical Society of America, and The American Library Institute.

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# THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

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## PROSPECTIVE REVENUES FOR SCHOOLS AND LIBRARIES IN THE WAR AND POST-WAR PERIODS

R. R. RENNE

EXPANDING federal debt and unprecedented war expenditures have raised grave concern over prospective revenues which may be available for non-war purposes in the years immediately ahead. The prospective revenues which will be available for educational services are, of course, of particular concern because of the vital role which education plays in the proper functioning of a democratic society.

In 1943 governmental expenditures for war purposes will comprise approximately three-fourths of our peak peacetime national income. Obviously, these unprecedented sums represent the demands of an all-out war effort and a transformation of our peace economy into a total war economy. These almost incredible sums are considered essential for winning the war.

### THE URGE TO CURTAIL NON-WAR EXPENDITURES

In order to speed execution of the war effort to completion and to keep the sacrifices and the tax burdens necessary to finance such an effort as low as possible, it is generally held essential to reduce drastically all expenditures of a nature not directly associated with the war ef-

fort. The idea that local and state governments should offset the effects of federal increases by curtailing their services and reducing their debts has been advanced by many. This idea seems to be growing in popularity. To strengthen the argument, many use such analogies as farm families who forego new cars the year they purchase new tractors. Obviously, the effects of such a public policy carried out by all state and local governments upon the American standard of living will be acute.

In spite of large reductions in contemplated expenditures for federal activities for other than war purposes, many groups are still insisting that such expenditures must be further curtailed in order to win the war. The far-reaching effects of such stupendous shifts raise very serious problems concerning probable future revenues available for such vital services as education, particularly schools and libraries. Certainly every American citizen wants to do his bit and co-operate fully with the government in the execution of the war. At the same time, it is the duty of each citizen to make every effort to see that vital services such as the necessary education and training of our children and youth are not

neglected unduly during the war years. When to the serious problems facing education during the war years are added those associated with fundamental trends operating within the economy, many of which were in operation before the war, the best thought of the nation and the co-operative efforts of educational leaders are essential if school and library services are not to suffer severe reverses in the post-war years.

#### THE DECLINE IN SCHOOL POPULATION

In 1940 there were more than two million fewer children of grade-school age (5-13 years, inclusive) in the United States than there were ten years earlier. There were nearly one million fewer children under 5 years of age in 1940 than in 1930. These data reflect the decline in the birth rate and indicate that needs for school services based on numbers of children to be educated are decreasing. These decreases will further reduce the competitive position of education compared with other governmental expenditures, particularly during the post-war period. The population of high-school age (14-17 years, inclusive) has already reached its peak and in the next decade will decline further, in response to the declining number of children under 5 and from 5 to 13 years of age.<sup>1</sup>

In contrast to the declining numbers of children and youth to be educated, the number of aged people in the United States is rapidly increasing. In 1940 there were more than two million more people 65 years of age and over than in 1930. In addition, there were approximately two and one-half million more people between the ages of 55 and 65, so

that the total number of people in the older age groups will continue to increase in the years ahead. Obviously, old age pensions and social security programs will be an increasingly pertinent force with which education must contend.

#### GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF AMERICAN YOUTH

Equally as important as the number of children and youth to be educated is their geographic distribution. The ratio of children of elementary and high-school age to adults in the productive age groups varies greatly for the different regions of the nation. For example, in the far western states there are only 336 children from 5 to 17 years of age for every thousand persons from 20 to 64 years of age, while in the Southeast there are 603. The high ratio of children to adults in the southern states is not due largely to the high fertility of the Negro population, as is generally supposed. The ratio of children of school age to the supporting adult group generally increases with decreases in the size of communities. In cities of 100,000 or more the ratio of children of school age (both elementary and high school) is comparatively low. In rural nonfarm communities the ratio of children is markedly greater than in urban communities, but the rural farm population is the one that is carrying the burden of school age out of all proportion to that in other types of communities. For example, in the far western states farm communities have 185 children per thousand adults, while rural nonfarm communities in these states have only 145 and urban communities only 112; in the Southwest the farm communities have 206, the rural nonfarm 148, and the urban only 113.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> In 1940, according to the 1940 census, the number of children 14 years old was 2,417,619, compared with 2,425,762 children 15 years old and 2,497,570 children 16 years old.

<sup>2</sup> For more detailed data and an analysis of regional variations in the ratio of children to adults see

It is obvious from the above regional and community variations in ratios of children to adults that the needs for school services vary greatly among different areas of the country. Since school revenues are obtained largely from local general property tax levies, these variations bring about serious inequalities in tax burdens for the support of schools among various regions and communities. In the southern states and the Northwest the burden is and will continue to be particularly heavy, while for the country as a whole the relative burden in farm communities will be much greater than that in village and urban areas. The increasing competition for public funds for other services growing out of the war effort and the economic conditions which are likely to prevail during the post-war period will create acute financing problems for school and library services in these areas.

The unequal distribution of pupil load becomes more serious in its implications when it is analyzed in relation to economic resources and tax-paying ability. In general, there seems to be a close relationship between areas with great child population loads and areas with low levels of living. In other words, the areas with the lowest levels generally have the greatest responsibility for child development and education. For the nation as a whole, approximately a third of the children from 5 to 17 years of age are located on farms, but only about one-eighth of the national income goes to the farm population. In every region of the United States except the Far West, the farm population has a much larger percentage of school-age children than its proportion of the national income, but it is in

the southeastern states that the disparities between child population and income reach acute proportions. Nearly a seventh of the nation's children of school age (5-17 years of age) are located in the southeastern states, but this region receives only 2 per cent of the national income. In contrast, the nonfarm population of the northeastern states has only a fourth of the nation's children of school age but receives 42 per cent of the national income.<sup>3</sup>

These disparities are the best evidence available that there is need for greater support for educational services on a national basis, to supplement local and state revenues. In a previous article the author related some of the inequalities in educational opportunities which result from these conditions.<sup>4</sup> The point which should be made here is that, while the need for greater support for educational services from national revenues exists and will undoubtedly become still greater with the concentration of adult populations and income in large cities where war industries are located, the tapping of the federal treasury for any appreciable sums for education will become increasingly difficult, particularly during the next few years of the war effort and the immediately following post-war years, when great outlays for unemployment, relief, general welfare, and public works are reasonably certain to develop.

The prospective economic conditions which are likely to grow out of our war effort, combined with basic trends in school child numbers and their distribution, indicate that financing educational

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 207.

<sup>4</sup> "Equalization of Educational Opportunities through Changes in Methods of Supporting Public Schools and Libraries," *P.N.L.A. Quarterly*, IV (July, 1940), 147-51.

U.S. National Resources Committee, *The Problems of a Changing Population* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938), pp. 201-6.

services in the United States generally will entail increasingly difficult problems. If adequate revenues are to be secured for schools and libraries in the years ahead, every means must be employed to make education's claims as strong as possible. Certain changes can be made in the methods of financing schools and libraries which will greatly improve their competitive position in the struggle for public funds, and a completely revamped program of local government finance in wartime could work toward the same end.

#### REVISION OF METHODS OF FINANCING SCHOOLS AND LIBRARIES

It is a widely observed fact that during depression periods, when heavy demands are made for governmental spending for relief, public works, and other methods of providing economic opportunities for unemployed and distressed families, spending for schools is seriously curtailed. This is not because citizens believe it dangerous to support schools during a depression or that they feel educational services are less desirable than many other public services. As a matter of fact, most people will state honestly that they believe education is absolutely essential in a democracy and that it is more important even in depression periods than any other public services.

This apparent paradox is explainable only if we analyze the methods by which various public services are financed. In the case of such services as roads, conservation and development of natural resources, army and navy, and recovery and relief, the costs are met either through bond issues and taxes which are secured later to pay off the bonds or through tax revenues secured currently by varied and indirect means. These include the tariff, various excises, personal

and corporate income taxes, and other taxes, most of which are characterized by a rather circuitous, or at least not easily traceable, route from the taxpayer's pocket to the support of the public service in question. On the other hand, four-fifths of the total school revenue is raised by the little local district or county from general property tax levies. In some states as much as 95 per cent or more is so raised. Even in some states where the state government contributes heavily for school support, this revenue is raised largely from a statewide millage levy on general property. Less than 1 per cent of total school revenue is raised by the federal government, the agency which uses most extensively indirect taxes or taxes based on net income. Thus the support of schools and libraries is local, personal, and direct; and it is a sociological fact that the more direct and easily traceable the route of the tax dollar from the taxpayer's pocket to the support of a given governmental service, the more likely is the service to be criticized or curtailed when economic conditions pinch.

This whole problem of financial support of schools and libraries is, therefore, largely a matter of primary versus secondary group relationships carried into the field of public finance. It is of particular significance at this time, in view of the economic conditions which we are likely to face in the immediate future, growing out of the war and post-war periods. Unless and until more of our school revenues are secured through indirect or secondary group means, the financial support of school services will lag behind that for many other public services with resulting serious social implications. This will be especially true in rural communities, where the means of support is peculiarly direct and personal



and where a combination of factors, including a heavy proportion of children of school age and relatively low incomes, makes it difficult to maintain educational opportunities comparable with those available in the more highly industrialized and urban areas.

Our statesmen and citizens interested in adequate school and library programs should expend every effort to secure increased federal support for these services to supplement state and local support. Since federal funds are obtained largely by more indirect and less personal taxes, public support for schools and libraries would be more likely to be maintained at adequate levels during the difficult economic periods which lie ahead if a larger proportion of total school revenues were obtained from federal sources. At least, the support for these services would be relatively better compared with that for other public services than it would be if practically sole reliance is continued upon state and local revenues secured from direct, personal levies. In the event that federal support cannot be tapped for any appreciable amounts, state support for schools should be greatly increased to replace a large proportion, perhaps at least half, of the revenue now obtained from local school district and county property tax levies. Such state support should be secured principally by means other than state-wide millage levies on general property.

#### BUILDING UP LOCAL GOVERNMENT RESERVES

Greater business activity and expanding national income associated with the war program (the national income is expected to approximate one hundred and twenty billion dollars in 1942 and possibly one hundred and thirty-five billion in 1943) are reducing local relief expendi-

tures. Also, the difficulty of obtaining materials for local and state highway construction or other capital outlay projects reduces expenditures for these purposes. A larger percentage of current local property tax levies will be collected, and a considerable portion of delinquent taxes accumulated from past years will be paid. These increasing collections will result in additional funds with which, according to many, local governments should liquidate their debts, simultaneously reducing their levies.

There can be little argument against liquidating debts, since the time to pay off debts is ordinarily when sufficient income is available to do so. Many local units are still heavily burdened with debts, and, until these are liquidated, they should continue to levy the same amount of taxes even though they spend less for various current services as a result of increased business activity during the war years. However, there is an increasingly large number of cities, counties, towns, school districts, and other local units that have already liquidated their debts or are rapidly doing so. For example, the net debt of all Montana counties is now less than one and one-half million dollars, or the equivalent of an average levy of less than five mills; and half of the fifty-six counties have no net debt. Many contend that such local units which have no outstanding debt should now lower their levies to help offset the federal war levies. The writer believes, however, that these local units, in addition to those with debts to be liquidated, should maintain their levies at present levels or even increase them at this time, in order to build up financial reserves for the financing of post-war problems that are reasonably certain to develop.

Building up local surpluses for the fi-



nancing of post-war programs is certainly sound business practice and intelligent planning. If properly administered, the building-up of local surpluses can be fitted into the national effort so that federal war financing is expedited. Local units could invest their surpluses in war bonds and in this way assist the federal government in securing funds to finance its huge war effort. At the same time, the bonds would be owned by the local units, which would thus be enabled to play an effective part in the post-war public works program. On the contrary, if local levies are reduced at this time, there is no assurance that increased federal levies to offset reductions in state and local revenues will be politically feasible, and, at the same time, local units will be weak and ineffective in meeting post-war adjustment problems.

Immediately following the cessation of hostilities there will be an increased demand for certain educational services. A large number of young men and women who have been drafted into the armed forces or who have quit school to take positions in defense industries and re-

lated activities connected with the war effort will want to return to school after the war is over and complete their formal education. The need for various shifts in skills and training will require continued emphasis upon certain types of vocational training, refresher courses, and related educational services. Far-reaching changes will be necessary in school curricula to take account of the extensive geographic, technological, economic, and social changes brought about by the war and by the operation of the forces which culminated in the war. Every effort should be made to see that state and local units are in a strong financial position to take the initiative in furnishing these vital services. It is obvious, therefore, that much thought and effort should be devoted now to the problems associated with assuring adequate revenues for schools and libraries not only during the period of actual combat but also for the post-war years which, unless effective work is done now, will find educational services in a relatively much poorer position to meet the nation's needs.

## REAL CO-OPERATIVE CATALOGING—THE CONCRETE APPROACH

FREMONT RIDER

THOSE who have attended almost any meeting of librarians during the last two years must have come back impressed with the widespread interest in the possibilities of economy that would result from a much greater degree of interlibrary co-operation, particularly in our technical processes and, most particularly, in cataloging.

It can probably be fairly said that there is among catalogers substantial agreement on one point: that it is impossible to secure really important cataloging economies merely through simplifications, no matter how drastic they may be, in the form of catalog entry. It may be true, as Miss Ludington pointed out in a paper presented at the 1941 mid-winter meeting of the American Library Association, that we have in some directions wandered far afield from our original straightforward cataloging concepts. It may be true, as Mr. Osborn emphasized in that fresh breeze that blew through the cataloging world a few months ago,<sup>1</sup> that our rules have sometimes gotten the better of us. But, on the other hand, as the defenders of the new cataloging code have made abundantly clear, more simplified rules will be no satisfying answer to our problem of cost. The overwhelming reason why our cataloging has become increasingly complex is that our materials have become increasingly complex; and the reason why catalogers have given more information

in their entries is that users of the catalog have constantly demanded it.

The further fact that has stood out in all these discussions has been that the cost of all our complexity would be negligible and that no one would give a moment's thought to the expense of the extra information that users demand of our catalogs, if only our cataloging work could be done somewhere, once and for all, instead of being done over and over again, in whole or in part, a thousand times in a thousand libraries. Few librarians deny that it would be quite possible to reduce our cataloging costs enormously without relinquishing cataloging adequacy if only we could find some way to co-operate more effectively—some way to pool our work, if not completely, at least on a much more sweeping scale than has heretofore been envisaged.

It may be at once objected: But isn't our cataloging already being done for us "once and for all" in our Library of Congress cards? The answer must be a (qualified) "No." The L.C. cards are, of course, admirable. They do go a long way toward providing the equivalent of co-operative cataloging. But in several directions they fall far short of their possibilities. Despite recent improvement, they are still sadly tardy in issuance; they fail to cover much of the material coming into our libraries; and they require that secondary entries and call numbers be added by hand by the receiving library. The *ideal* of co-opera-

<sup>1</sup> Andrew D. Osborn, "The Crisis in Cataloging," *Library Quarterly*, XI (October, 1941), 393-411.

tive cataloging—to receive all the cards necessary for all our accessions, to receive those cards promptly, and to receive them ready to drop into our catalogs without a line added or altered—is, with L.C. cards, still very far from realization. For such books as we are able to get L.C. cards for, our cataloging costs are cut from 40 to 70 per cent. But too often we can't get cards; and we ought to be able to develop a co-operative service that would cut our costs 80-90 per cent.

We are told—by those who ought to know—that there is today a "crisis" in cataloging. We are told—also by those who ought to know—that very shortly there is going to be a crisis in library finances. One might well query whether we, as librarians, should not put these two statements together and then take requisite action—not some time in the indefinite future, but now, while we still have left the opportunity to plan our cataloging policies and administrations.

In a paper presented at the University of Chicago two years ago last summer I commented that the swift growth of our libraries seemed to constitute "a problem of such magnitude that, to meet it, nothing will suffice except a drastic and fundamental mass reorientation of library viewpoint." And my comment continued:

Furthermore, the need for such a change of concept would seem to be urgent. There would seem to be grave danger—and here we come back to our text<sup>2</sup>—that, if we wait too long, the reorientation will be directed, not by librarians,

but by strangers largely or wholly ignorant of library needs and techniques. For "things," we must remember, never "happen." They are always "done." If they are done by people with expert knowledge, able to think keenly and then to act aggressively, they are done well. But sometimes, unfortunately, they are done by people lacking all qualifications except the willingness to act aggressively. Do we as librarians see nothing incongruous, or even alarming, in the fact that the largest union cataloging project ever attempted, the largest bibliographical project ever carried on, the largest printed catalog ever completed, the most searching criticism of cataloging methods uttered of recent years, were each and every one of them directed not by a professionally trained cataloger but by someone drawn from an alien field?<sup>3</sup>

When we say "complete co-operation" or "really effective co-operation," not only in cataloging but in all phases of library service, what do we mean? Let us see if we can set up, step by step, a series of premises, to each of which, in turn, we may be able to secure general assent, and then view the syllogistic result to which these premises have finally led us:

1. A time is coming—if it is not already here—when no library endeavoring to provide research facilities on even the most generous scale will dream of trying to live for itself alone. To serve its clientele it must, increasingly, co-operate with its sister-libraries in the securing, the storing, the cataloging, and the lending of all research materials.

2. There cannot be "complete library co-operation" in any given area—and this is equally true whether the area be the entire country or only a part of it—unless each library in the area involved is able to make the fullest practicable use of the resources of all the other libraries

<sup>2</sup> The statement by Paul North Rice that "the problem of cataloging cost must be attacked by catalogers themselves or it will be attacked by executives less able to judge fairly as to what should be modified or eliminated." And compare also Mr. Osborn's whimsical comment: "The high cost of cataloging in this country is due to the fact that during the 20th century too much money has been available for cataloging."

<sup>3</sup> "Alternatives for the Present Dictionary Card Catalog," in William M. Randall (ed.), *The Acquisition and Cataloging of Books* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940), p. 145.

of the area—meaning by “practicable” a use not conflicting with the other libraries’ services to their own clientele.

3. This maximum use is not easily possible unless each library knows what material is in each of the other libraries of the area—and knows this, not in the general terms of “strength” or “emphasis” or “special interest,” but in terms of the exact items held by each.

4. Such exact knowledge is impossible of attainment unless the area, whether it be large or small, possesses some sort of a union catalog for the holdings of all the libraries in the area.

5. But a single union catalog, located in some one of the libraries of the area, is not sufficient to render possible easy maximum use by all of them, for, unless each library in the area has a copy of the union catalog, it is only the library actually holding it that is able to know the contents of, and so to make the fullest possible use of, the contents of all the other libraries.

6. Any single-copy union catalog *has* to be one on cards. But duplicated copies of such a union catalog may be either on cards or in book form. If the multiplied copies of the union catalog are on cards, there is involved, for all the libraries of the area, multiplied card-filing and card-equipment costs. If, on the other hand, the multiplied copies are in book form, there results a catalog far cheaper and far easier to use, but also one forcing us to very serious compromises in other directions; for all book catalogs which have to do with a continually increasing volume of items must run between the Scylla of multiplied alphabets to search and the Charybdis of multiplied reprintings to pay for.

7. The publishing cost of a multiplied-copy union catalog of any area in book form would, of course, be great if it were

in typographic printed form. But it might be process printed; and, in any event, if such a gross cost were divided among fifty libraries, it might be easily bearable; while, if divided among a couple of hundred libraries, it might be almost negligible.

8. The larger the area covered by a union catalog the greater the gross expense but the less the per-library expense. In other words—and this has not received the emphasis it merits—a multiplicity of sectional union catalogs may involve the same sort, if not the same amount, of duplicative waste as a multiplicity of individually made catalogs.

9. It has been generally assumed that by “union catalog” we mean a union *author* catalog, or a union *subject* catalog, because practically every union catalog so far made has been either one or the other. But, obviously, there is nothing inherently impossible in our making a union *dictionary* catalog or its equivalent. This possibility has even been mentioned—but rather as a fascinating dream than as a practicable possibility.

10. But haven’t we, in dismissing this possibility so casually, overlooked one overwhelmingly important consideration? Haven’t we, quite without reason, assumed that a union catalog—any sort of union catalog—must be, of necessity, an extra expense, a burden that, however well it might be worth its cost for its own sake, would still be an added cost to the libraries served? And haven’t we continued this assumption in the face of the obvious fact that a union dictionary catalog (or its equivalent) of all the libraries in a given area, if every library in the area has a copy of it, becomes at once, automatically, a complete catalog of each library?

11. If this last statement is true, then a union dictionary catalog of any area

need no longer be an added expense to the libraries included in it. Rather, is not the reverse true—that the moment we have a multiplied-copy dictionary union catalog for any group of libraries it is their independent making of separate card catalogs that has become the duplicative and unnecessary process?

12. This last complete reorientation of viewpoint opens up hitherto unconsidered vistas of much greater service and of real economy. If we might discontinue the making of separate individual dictionary catalogs and replace them with segments, or complete copies, or both, of a union dictionary catalog, made up—and possibly printed in book form—for us elsewhere, might we not have much better catalogs, and at the same time automatically save a very large part of our present separate cataloging expense?<sup>4</sup>

We are obliged to start any consideration of cataloging costs with the disturbing realization that they are in no sense a negligible item in library expenditure. The institutions of higher education alone in this country are spending somewhere between twelve and eighteen million dollars a year for their library service, and probably over one-third of this is being spent for cataloging. At Wesleyan we have, for several years, been particularly interested in the problem of reducing this outstanding expense. Back in 1933-36 we made the first—and still the only—all-factor, long-period determination of cataloging costs, the results of which were published in the *Library*

*Quarterly* for October, 1936.<sup>5</sup> In several other papers, in the *Library Quarterly* and elsewhere, other phases of the cataloging cost problem have been discussed by the writer.<sup>6</sup>

Two years ago a group of six colleges—Amherst, Mount Holyoke, Smith, Trinity, Wesleyan, and Connecticut College for Women—discussed, in an all-winter series of conferences, what, for want of a better name, we called the "Connecticut Valley Project." These six colleges are geographically contiguous and are similar in size of library, curricular scope, and educational standards; because of this situation it was proposed that they should:

1. Make a union author catalog of their joint holdings and then make multiple copies of this catalog, in either card or book form, so that each one of the six libraries might have one or more copies of it available.

2. Stimulate a much broader development of interlibrary loans among the six members of the group by arranging for the easy daily interchange of books, by motor truck or otherwise.

3. Avoid the unnecessary duplication of little-used research items already held by one or more members of the group.

It is obvious that point (1) of the above program was the only obligatory one; the extent of each library's participation in points (2) and (3) was to be entirely voluntary.

After considerable analysis of the respective holdings of the various libraries of the group and extended discussion, some of the six desired to proceed with the project, but some did not; and, as it was not financially practicable unless all six joined in it, it was "laid on the table"

<sup>4</sup> LeRoy C. Merritt has done an excellent and long-needed job (in R. B. Downs, *Union Catalogs in the United States*, pp. 58-96) in analyzing the probable book production of the world to date (in number of titles) and the proportion of it held in this country. We now have a fairly solid basis, if not of fact, at least of well-balanced estimate, from which to work toward a solution of this co-operative cataloging problem.

<sup>5</sup> "Library Cost Accounting," *Library Quarterly*, VI (October, 1936), 331-61.

<sup>6</sup> "The Possibility of Discarding the Card Catalog," *Library Quarterly*, VIII (July, 1938), 329-45; "Alternatives for the Present Dictionary Card Catalog," in Randall, *op. cit.*, pp. 133-62.



for possible further consideration later. The librarians concerned could, of course, take no action without the approval of their executives, trustees, and faculties, and library facilities were in each case merely a part of a broader and more complex administrative and educational problem. Geographical contiguity argued with much plausibility for a splitting of the larger six-college group into two groups of three colleges each. Finally, unless there were somewhere definite offsetting economies, the project was going to cost each library something. Some of the group felt that the union catalog proposed would render a service that would be fully worth this relatively slight added cost. Some of the group felt there would really be no added cost, because it would be more than offset by the savings made in avoiding unnecessarily duplicative book and periodical purchases. But the amount of such savings were, of necessity, impossible to prove in advance; and they were realizable only—as one member of the group neatly put it—in so far as we might set up for ourselves “self-denying ordinances.” Some of us were ready to submit to this sort of self-denial, feeling that the resulting saving would be significant. But others of us felt either that such savings would be insignificant, or that they might result in an impairment of local service, or that, although desirable, they might be attained by other and cheaper means.

Looking back at the project now, in the light of the twelve “premises” outlined above, is it not conceivable that the basic trouble with it was, not that it was revolutionary, but that it was not revolutionary enough? To those of us who talked it over, it seemed pretty radical; but is it not possible that it was really too cautious? that it lacked the courage to follow to its logical conclusion

a plainly blazed trail? that it preached avoidance of duplication and yet proposed to superimpose on six existing and independently continued card catalogs a partially duplicative union catalog?

Suppose that, instead, we had, in our “Connecticut Valley Project,” dared to go “all out” for cataloging co-operation, instead of merely to nibble at it? Suppose that we had made a clean sweep and had proposed the setting-up of machinery for making a consolidated union dictionary catalog of our six libraries, instead of merely a union author catalog? Suppose that we had seen that by setting up such a machinery we would render our six local catalog departments, to a very considerable extent, repetitious and unnecessary? Suppose that we had seen that, by co-operating in this way, we might save thousands of dollars a year each and yet secure for ourselves a better catalog service—might not then the “Connecticut Valley Project” have received broader support?

All this assumes, obviously, that the concept of centralized co-operative cataloging is something that is really within the range of practicable, attainable possibility. Is it? We have, in past years, studied and analyzed and talked about it, but with the feeling, perhaps, that it was a sort of mirage, something remote and iridescent. We have hesitated to take the plunge, hesitated to start doing anything to make it realizable.

Co-operative cataloging is, of course, not primarily a problem of cataloging rules or of printing techniques, but rather one of organization and administration. Any first attempt at a concrete approach to it must be tentative and exploratory. And one fact we must face squarely at the very start: we cannot have *all* of our cake and eat it, too. In other words, we cannot enjoy the very substantial sav-

ings of co-operative cataloging and at the same time retain all the advantages of our present independently made catalogs. Just as card catalogs have certain advantages for which book catalogs are able to offer no complete substitute, so locally made catalogs have some advantages which centrally made ones will never be able to have. As always, the essence of the materials that we are forced to work with compels us, on some points, to compromise.

A successful co-operative plan will have to be based on nine assumptions, all of which can, I believe, be proved valid.

1. No such plan can be considered soundly based that presupposes indefinite subsidization from any source. A proper plan must be, within a reasonable time, completely self-supporting.<sup>7</sup>

2. No co-operative plan is defensible

<sup>7</sup> Mr. Downs, in his Introduction to his recently published *Union Catalogs in the United States*, remarks that "want of financial stability is also an unfortunate characteristic of virtually every catalog thus far established." And, speaking of union catalogs in general, in his *Manual of Union Catalog Administration*, Arthur Berthold says: "It must be emphasized over and over again that no matter how important or how necessary a union catalog is, it ought not to be started before its financial backing is assured. On this point practically all existing catalogs have gambled. The usual attitude appears to be that, since the cause is worthy, someone will step in and provide the means. To some extent such a view has been encouraged by the ease with which it has been possible to obtain federal assistance in the form of free labor. . . . The real problem begins when the original grants have expired and the union catalog has to arrange for quarters, equipment, and a budget for staff salaries. Confronted with this situation, some catalogs are still evading the problem. . . . Such situations are deplorable, and may contribute eventually to a good deal of skepticism about the whole value of regional union catalogs. There is, in fact, already a fairly strong feeling that regional union catalogs are wasteful and not justified. . . . It is idle to count too much on the continuous support of educational foundations. . . . They justly feel that once such a project is organized its support ought to come from the community. . . . To proceed without . . . a definite source of income is to court nothing but confusion."

that does not avail itself of every practicable economy in the utilization of both labor and materials. If wasteful methods are used on a union catalog project, no matter what excuse is given for using them, and even if the libraries served do not themselves have to pay for them, the project is ultimately going to bog down.<sup>8</sup>

3. In our various college and university libraries we, at present, duplicate certain materials vastly more than is justified by the amount of use given them. This competitive duplication is at present only unnecessary; it will shortly become impossible to continue it.

4. We duplicate very largely because our interlibrary loan machinery is, at present, slow, expensive, and cumbersome. We lend and borrow, relatively speaking, absurdly little—dozens of books a year each, where we ought to be exchanging thousands. We have not yet even begun to realize the ultimate possibilities of economy that lie in the easy, cheap, and speedy interlibrary interchange of little-used research materials.

5. But our duplication of labor, particularly in repetitious cataloging, is just as serious as our unnecessary duplication of books.

6. In our cataloging we are not yet utilizing, as we might, new business

<sup>8</sup> This is not said in criticism of any past projects, for they were pioneering; they often could not control the methods they were forced to use; and they have accomplished a great deal of valuable work and have provided us with a great deal of useful data. Rather, it is by way of warning that their methodology should not be indorsed or adopted elsewhere without a most critical analysis of it. LeRoy Merritt's study of the actual costs of various already initiated union catalogs (in Downs, *op. cit.*, pp. 51-57) is most revealing on this point. The net average cost established by the combined experience which he analyzes could certainly be cut a third, and probably considerably more. Some of the costs which he cites are over twice as high as those which have been realized by sustained experience on comparable work elsewhere.



machines, methods, and processes which have been developed of recent years.

7. One thing that has blocked effective cataloging co-operation has been our all too frequent insistence on unnecessarily individualistic, and often extremely inconsequential, variations from the norms, or standards, which we have ourselves, collectively, established. (Even such a purely mechanical device as our book call-numbering is not standardized.)

8. We have also insisted upon certain perfectionist ideals of completeness and timeliness which, although they are seldom, or never, realized in actual practice, serve to make our techniques unnecessarily expensive. We have, for instance, based our cataloging methods on the tacit assumption that all our cataloging is carried through promptly, whereas, in practice, we wait months, or years, for L.C. cards for items. Nine libraries out of ten are in arrears in some respect on their cataloging.

9. We have (of recent years) begun to give thought to the menace of over-swollen stacks. We have hardly yet begun to give thought to the menace of over-swollen card catalogs, although in some respects it is even more serious. More books mean only more room: more cards mean not only more room but also a continual servicing charge—filing—which rises in a geometrical ratio, in perplexity and in cost, as catalogs increase in size.

10. Not content with a multiplicity of over-swollen individual library card catalogs, we have, of recent years, begun to set up a chain of more or less overlapping, more or less duplicative, and even more over-swollen union catalogs, notwithstanding that widely duplicated book-form copies of a single card catalog would give a far better and a far more

widely distributed service and would, at the same time, be enormously cheaper.<sup>9</sup>

It is quite possible to devise a plan under which, if a sufficient number of libraries desire, they may pool their present independent cataloging work into the making of one union dictionary catalog, of which complete copies in book form and (if desired) segmental copies (for part or all of each library's own books) in card form will be available to each co-operating library. One possible specific plan—there are a dozen different ways of approaching the problem—was outlined during the conferences of the Connecticut Valley Project; during the two years since, this plan has been worked out in detail and has been subjected to considerable criticism and amendment.

Although this is, perhaps, not the place to go into the technical details of this particular plan or of any other, some general comment upon it would seem to be pertinent. It proposes, as its basis, a standardized "process-slip" order routine, uniform for each co-operating library. The last slip of the processing group would be a card which would act as a temporary author-entry local cataloging of the book pending complete cataloging by the central cataloging organization. (This particular processing routine is already in effect at Wesleyan and many other libraries.) The proposed Central Cataloging Bureau (which might be the Library of Congress, or some one library of the co-operating group, or some entirely new agency) would receive regularly copies of all these last process slips (or cards) of all the co-operating libraries. The plan assumes "complete

<sup>9</sup> Dr. Bishop remarks (*Library Quarterly*, VIII [October, 1938], 471): "It is questionable whether regional catalogs in America will prove to be worth the money and time invested in their manufacture and in their upkeep."

cataloging" to mean, not the making of "unit" cards (like the present L.C. cards), but cards with call numbers and secondary headings already printed in. It assumes, also, cards which, like the entries in the *Union List of Serials*, will all bear "location indicia," showing exactly which of the co-operating libraries hold the title cataloged.

Each co-operating library would receive, each week, sets of all the printed cards issued by the Central Bureau. These cards would be, as stated, not merely author-entry cards but sets of cards completely printed up with secondary-entry headings and *location indicia*. These cards the local library would file in its main catalog. Its corresponding process-slip author cards and any of its own previously fully cataloged cards—all now superseded—would be removed and destroyed.

Each co-operating library would also receive from the Central Bureau each week (or at some other period decided on) one or more printed volumes of the union catalog, the dictionary catalog of the consolidated holdings of all the libraries of the co-operating group. As soon as the printed volumes of this book catalog were received, the local library would (unless it preferred to retain both) allow them gradually to supersede its own card catalog, the corresponding alphabetical segments of it being progressively removed from its catalog trays and destroyed. If it did this, the printed book catalog would, of course, gradually become the library's main catalog, its card catalog becoming eventually only a comparatively small temporary revolving index to the latest accessions of the co-operating libraries, maintained solely to give information regarding them during the interim while it awaited the receipt of book-catalog volumes to cover them.

The Central Cataloging Bureau, wherever it was located or under whatever auspices, would obviously be a large and busy organization. Even with the economies which would result from the elimination of duplicated effort, one cannot combine the cataloging departments of even a hundred libraries without coming out with an agency of considerable size and complexity—particularly when it is one that would have to do printing (both in card and book form) and publishing (distribution) as well as cataloging *per se*. It would have to maintain certain files of its own, including an enormous revolving consolidated master-file of process slips, of L.C. and other printed cards, and of all sorts of other bibliographical material relating to the books which it had in process of cataloging. For the cataloging of many books it could rely upon this consolidated material; for many others it would obviously require to have at hand copies of the books themselves. Promptness in issuing its printed cards would, of course, be a *sine qua non*.

Concurrently with its printed catalog cards the Central Bureau would be also continuously issuing a printed book catalog. The "copy" basis of this book catalog would be a separately maintained dictionary card catalog of all its own printed cards. This "printing copy card file" would not be a revolving catalog, like the master-catalog; but a continually growing one. Its cards would be photolithotyped from day to day in sections, printed up into volumes of convenient size, each one covering a succeeding segment of the alphabet. This catalog would be of the continuously cumulative type; i.e., it would always be in one straight alphabet, without the issuance of any separate "cumulation" or "supplement" volumes.

Of course, the co-operating libraries

would not, under such a plan as this, be relieved of *all* their cataloging—or quasi-cataloging—work. They would have, for instance, to mark their call-numbers on all their newly cataloged books. They would have to “revise”—and perhaps to correct—“proof” copy of Central Bureau cataloging for all books of which they possessed copies. They would still have their own catalog card filing to do. Finally, they might have certain optional accessory cataloging operations to perform: such as indicating the holding—and the location—of their multiple copies of a given title; giving different call numbers, or other individual treatment, to material destined for certain sorts of special collections—college memorabilia, for example; providing the Central Bureau with information as to changes in local holdings of open-entry continuations; and making additional analytic cards where these seemed locally desirable (as in the case of a highly specialized library searching out every scrap of information in its particular field).

Each co-operating library would, of course, have to pay the Central Bureau for its cards and for the catalog volumes which it received—payment being made by the card and by the volume, i.e., in direct ratio to the amount of central service given it.

For every library the first advantage of the co-operative plan proposed would be, of course, the saving in cataloging expense which it would effect. As to just how much this saving would be not even an approximate answer can be given, until we are informed as to a large number of variable factors, each interrelated with the others. (By far the most important are, of course, the number of libraries co-operating and the amount of the annual accessions of each.) Most of the co-operating libraries would not only

save money; they would also have a better—that is, a more completely detailed, more accurate, and more comprehensive—catalog of their own holdings than they would, could, or should be making at present for themselves alone.

But probably even more important in the long run than either of these things would be their securing access, through the union catalog, to the resources of many other libraries besides their own. It is easy to see how greatly such a catalog, completely dictionary-cataloged in one alphabet and with location indicia shown on all entries, would simplify the work of locating items wanted, and so reduce the expense of interlibrary loans.

It must not be overlooked, however, that such a union catalog as this, at hand in every co-operating library, would have numerous other uses. It would automatically provide each co-operating library with subject bibliographies for many fields in which it possessed no other bibliography, or for fields in which no other bibliography existed. And this consolidated subject-approach would tend to suggest to research workers items which might, otherwise, never have come to their attention at all. It would provide for the order department of each library a wealth of data now unavailable to it regarding correct author names, series, titles, etc., making ordering, by so much, a simpler and cheaper process. Still more important, however, it would automatically notify each order department when a given item was already held by some other, and perhaps near-by, library—a knowledge which in many cases would make possible the cancellation of the proposed order, resort being made instead to interlibrary loan. This machinery for the elimination of unnecessarily duplicative book purchases might alone offset the entire cost of the book catalog.

It has already been pointed out that extra sets of the union catalog in its book form might be placed in the separate school and departmental libraries of a large university or college library. They would provide each of these separate subordinate libraries not only with a union catalog but also with a copy of the catalog of the library of their own institution. It is to be expected that every large library would want several such extra sets, since, considering their usefulness, their cost would be negligible.

Over the past two years the plan here outlined has been, as previously stated, submitted in its detailed form to a considerable number of catalogers and administrators for criticism. The comments from them have been extremely constructive and helpful. Many of their emendatory suggestions have been incorporated. Some of their criticisms are, in a sense, unanswerable; and, to get a clear perspective of our problem, it would seem useful to cite the most important of them here.

One of the first hurdles the plan has met is that, since all call-numbers set in the union catalog must be standardized and absolutely uniform, when the Central Bureau recatalogs one of any library's older books, it is going to have to change its call-number. It is difficult to see, however, why this should seem an objection. If the Bureau has made a change in an old call-number, it is because it is attempting an improvement, or a modernization, or an actual correction of it. Surely to secure such modernization or correction, without cost to the local library except the remarking of the call-number on the book, is hardly undesirable. (It will, of course, be true that, if a library happens to have been using a classification of its own—i.e., one that is neither D.C. nor L.C.—it will be faced

with the necessity of eventually remarking, volume by volume, all its call-numbers. But, in this case, what is really happening is that it is getting its entire library authoritatively reclassified and recataloged, at no cost to itself except the remarking.)

The objection next most often met with has been that, if the union catalog's printed volume entries bear location indicia, they are going to be out of date whenever even one additional library acquires a copy of a given book. Of course, this is true; but what of it? As librarians we haven't felt that the *Union List of Serials* became out of date and useless every time a library acquired a periodical volume that it had previously lacked. The proposed union catalog issued under this plan would be revised and reprinted far more frequently than the *Union List of Serials* has been; and every time it was reprinted corrections in its location indicia would be automatically made.

It should be pointed out here that there would be continual revision of Bureau entries for all sorts of reasons, for, with the cost of revision divided between a hundred or more libraries, a constant bringing up to date of catalog entries could be easily afforded. Any library catalog, to be really satisfactory to its users, must be a vital, growing organism, an organism sloughing off here and proliferating there to meet new demands and constantly changing conditions. So, if authors' birth dates became known, the Central Bureau would add them to their cards. If subject headings became outmoded with the march of time, it would revamp them. If anonymous works acquired authors, it would reprint their cards and print cross-reference cards for them. Of course, by the way, the Bureau would print all needed cross-reference cards and all guide cards, to give co-

operators, just so far as possible, a complete catalog ready for use.

One head librarian raised this point:

If you substitute a printed book union catalog for a local card catalog, what will be the psychological reaction of the student, or faculty member, who discovers that much of the material he finds in the catalog is not in his own library? I consider this a fundamental weakness of the plan. Years of experience at a reference desk lead me to fear the wisdom of using a union catalog to serve local needs.

The obvious answer to this comment is that, under the plan proposed, no co-operating library would be under any necessity of using the union book catalog as its local catalog if it preferred not to do so. It was the idea of the plan that most libraries would wish to retain, as their local card catalogs, only material not in their printed catalogs, i.e., mere fringes of lately added material. The local card catalogs were to be "revolving" catalogs, constantly added to and constantly taken from, consisting in part of very recent process order slips and in part of those Central Bureau printed cards which the Bureau had not yet reached in its book printing. Each volume, as it appeared, would be intended to supplant all the cards included in it. But, although this would be the intent and although giving up its complete local card catalog would save the local library a good deal of filing and card-storage cost, the library could still continue to maintain the local catalog in its entirety if it preferred to do so. (Or, if it chose, it would be quite possible for it to have a local card catalog which was a compromise between these two extremes. It might, for instance, have one which included only all books published after a stated date, i.e., a catalog of the library's live, up-to-date material only.)

Several critics were puzzled to know how many cards and how many printed volumes the proposed Central Catalog-

ing Bureau might—or could—issue each year. This is the sort of question that cannot be answered in advance, simply because it is entirely dependent upon the number of libraries co-operating and the total of their accessions. The Bureau would catalog and print what was sent in to it to do. It would reprint as often as the co-operators were willing to pay for up-to-dateness in service.

Argument over details of printing format and form of catalog entry also threatened to be lengthy. But, after all, these *are* details, and details that must be decided by the co-operating libraries themselves, through committee or by questionnaire or otherwise. Here, for instance, are some of the matters that would have to be settled by such joint decision: Should the cataloging be in present full L.C. form of entry, be slightly simplified, be drastically simplified, or, possibly, be an even more complete form of entry (one including descriptive or evaluative annotations, for example)? Should it insert both L.C. and D.C. call-numbers? What should be the exact form of these call-numbers? Should L.C. call numbers for books for which L.C. cards have been printed follow exactly L.C. card form? What should be the typographical format of entries? The face of type used? Its size? In settling on a format it would have to be borne in mind that—as compared with L.C. cards—these cards would not have a unit-card format; that the format should permit of easy and inexpensive photolithotyping (a problem with which the Library of Congress is not concerned); and that it should be one looking as well as possible in book, as well as in card, form.

Several critics have questioned the use of the phrase "Central Cataloging Bureau" since they felt that it carried an assumption that the Library of Congress



would not be the central cataloging agency. No such assumption is intended. If the Library of Congress would enlarge the scope of its present invaluable cataloging service, and could and would give libraries the additional cataloging service here proposed, it would be obviously logical and desirable to have it do so. But it must be clearly realized that L.C. cards, in their present form, could not give the service here proposed. (There is no room on them for location indicia, for one thing; their format is one not adapted to book reproduction, and, for co-operative purposes, it is unnecessarily expensive.)

Several commentators expressed the opinion that, while desirable, the initiation of any co-operative cataloging plan would have to be a very slow and long-drawn-out process, because it would have to be a nation-wide proposition, and that would mean, of necessity, a widely representative commitment, which would have many preliminary subproblems—legal and financial as well as bibliographical—to thresh out first in an extended series of meetings. Personally, I am not at all sure whether this ponderous, nation-wide approach is the wisest one. It might, instead, be preferable to initiate such a plan as this on a much more modest scale, i.e., by only enough libraries to make it practicable (which might be ten or might be a hundred, depending upon their size and character). No matter how much preliminary study we give such a proposition, no matter how much we analyze it in advance, no matter how long we delay actual initiation to be quite sure of the efficiency and accuracy of our procedures, our plan, whatever it is, is bound, at the start, to be more or less experimental. We simply fool ourselves if we think otherwise. When ground is being broken in any entirely new field of

effort, nobody is wise enough to foresee all the complications that will arise or to forestall all the mistakes that will be made. It would seem to be better, therefore, not to attempt too grandiose a start.

When an industrial organization is developing a new manufactured product which has passed its laboratory tests and seems to "work," it does not forthwith build a million-dollar plant to manufacture it. For it knows, by experience, that what worked out perfectly on the small scale of laboratory experiment may not work out at all on the large scale of factory production. What it does next is to build a "pilot plant," that is, an actual manufacturing plant, but a small one, to test out the making of the product under actual manufacturing conditions. This pilot plant may itself cost many thousands of dollars, but these may save hundreds of thousands of dollars in large-scale mistakes. And this would seem to be the way that such a novel cataloging plan as this one that we are talking about ought to be developed. If co-operative cataloging works well for a pilot-plant group of comparatively small libraries, its expansion is a relatively simple matter. And I emphasize *small* libraries, for, because of the repeated duplication of entries that would occur in the case of a large number of small libraries, the making of a co-operative catalog for a hundred of them would be actually a smaller job, both bibliographically and mechanically, than the making of a catalog for one large library. Where our pilot plant is located, what libraries are included in it, who directs it—all these are, of course, vitally important questions.

Some critics have feared that any union catalog such as is here proposed would be, as they term it, "impossibly large" if even a hundred libraries co-

operated in it. "Impossibly large" is a phrase somewhat difficult to define. How large their combined catalog would be would depend, clearly, on the size and number of the co-operating libraries. It must furthermore be remembered that among any large number of libraries there is bound to be, as has just been said, an enormous amount of duplication. It has been estimated, for example, that a union catalog of a hundred college libraries, of equivalent size and character, might be somewhere around seven times as large as the catalog of the largest single library of the hundred.

A cataloger asked: "How far would the Central Bureau go in printing different cards for different editions of the same book?" This is a sample of the questions of policy which, like questions of format, would be for the group as a whole to determine. To this question the answer might very well be that it would print new cards for all editions so different that otherwise catalogers would feel impelled to "correct" the printed cards already supplied them! Certainly it would be desirable to print cards for editions textually different. Probably it would not be desirable to print cards for different editions if the only difference involved was the date of publication. Almost surely it would not if the only change was the number of the edition.

A college administrator raised this point:

This plan implies that there would result a great increase in interlibrary loans. I agree that there probably would. Generally speaking, there is, as between the larger libraries and the smaller ones, always a deficit balance on such loans. So long as loans are negligible in bulk (as they are now), the larger libraries can absorb the handling loss on them. But could they continue to do this if the loss were multiplied manyfold—as this plan contemplates?

Although this question is not one of co-operative cataloging per se, it is so important as to deserve a word of comment.

It is difficult for librarians to deny that there is a basic fallacy in the way we are at present attempting to handle our interlibrary loans, and this basic fallacy has delayed their logical development. We are now trying to go in two opposite directions: we are trying to be as economical as possible in our administration; we are trying to be as generous as possible in permitting the interlibrary use of our materials. Obviously, these two endeavors are in direct conflict.

The correct solution to the whole interlibrary loan problem seems obvious. All such loans should be put on a fee basis, the fee being set large enough to cover all costs to the lending library. Every library should be glad to *share* its resources; but no library should be under indefinite obligation to *give* free service to another. Few borrowers would object to paying the actual cost of interlibrary loan service rendered, for most people have self-respect and dislike to play a parasitic role. Once interlibrary loans are put on a self-supporting basis, there would cease to be the financial reasons that there now are to restrict them. The fee set should be a flat one, sufficient to pay average handling costs, postage one way, and a reasonable allowance for wear and tear. Interlibrary loan costs are at present absurdly high because their volume is absurdly small and our procedures unnecessarily cumbersome. Given larger loan volumes and efficient routines, a fee of perhaps thirty cents per volume would be adequate—perhaps even less. Every instinct of librarianship urges us to get our books used more; and, once interlibrary loans are made self-sup-



porting, we would have much less need to discourage them as we now do.

The almost invariable conclusion to every comment on the plan has been, in substance: "Most interesting: it ought to be referred to a committee for careful study." So it ought, by all means. It should be very carefully studied, indeed, and by committee members who have had actual practical experience in the four aspects of the problem: cataloging, printing, publishing, and library administration. The only point to emphasize is that "appointing a committee" should not be made an alibi for either delay or inaction. For no committee would have any difficulty in finding reasons why co-

operative cataloging won't work. That would be easy. But what is wanted now, it would seem, is a committee determined to work out a plan which will work. It would have to remember that no common ground can ever be reached on any new plan without continual compromise—that is, without each of us giving up some of the things we would like to retain. It would have to remember that most attempts to progress in any new direction become blocked, not by frontal objection, but by prolonged argument over relatively inconsequential details. It would have a difficult task; but it is a task that must be done sometime if greater efficiency in cataloging methodology is ever to become a reality.

THE SOCIAL IDEAS OF A LIBRARY PIONEER  
JOSEPHUS NELSON LARNED, 1836-1913

SIDNEY DITZION

TO MOST persons the name of Larned evokes the associative response "historian." A study of the life and writings of this historian discloses that his contributions to historical study and method constitute perhaps the least creative aspect of the part he played in the development of social thought in America. Larned's historical writings were, to be sure, voluminous. However, they consist, in the main, in lengthy textbooks for secondary-school students, subject compilations of the historical contributions of other scholars, and bibliographic compendiums. The progressive character of Larned's high-school history texts was confined to their use of the results of intensive scholarship as opposed to the broad-sweep treatment which had dominated the field before 1900. The inclusion of extensive chapter bibliographies was also a comparatively new practice. The use of interesting factual material was designed to motivate the study of history; but, inasmuch as the treatment was exclusively political, such motivation seems to have been achieved only in part.<sup>1</sup>

Larned's active life started in 1857, when he took a position with the *Buffalo Republic*. In 1859 he joined the editorial staff of the *Buffalo Express* and later rose to the associate editorship—with Mark Twain—of that paper.<sup>2</sup> In the period im-

mediately preceding and during the Civil War his work consisted in writing editorials of a political character; this was his "specialty."<sup>3</sup> Although Larned severed his editorial connections with the *Buffalo Express* in 1872, after his election as superintendent of education (of Buffalo), he continued his financial interest in the paper until 1877.

SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT

Recognizing that cultural progress always meets with troublesome barriers in its attempt to keep pace with social developments, Larned bent his energies to ironing out many of the antagonisms which social relationships manifested. One of his first tasks (1871-76) was to get the Buffalo schools removed from politics. Inasmuch as the Buffalo Common Council, through its Committee on Schools, had extraordinarily direct controls over the educational system, Larned felt that the Buffalo schools were exposed to political maneuvering—more so than elsewhere. Because of this situation, no superintendent, however independent, could resist pressure at all points. To remedy this evil, Superintendent Larned advocated a democratically elected board of education. He fully realized that this change would not be a complete safeguard against political interference; nor did he think that an elective

<sup>1</sup> *A History of the United States for Secondary Schools*, reviewed by J. T. Shotwell, *Educational Review*, XXVIII (1904), 314-15.

<sup>2</sup> J. B. Olmsted, "Josephus Nelson Larned," *Buffalo Historical Society Publications*, XIX (1915), 9-11.

<sup>3</sup> The article in the *Dictionary of American Biography* speaks of Larned's having written many able editorials in behalf of the Union cause. There is also indication from his later writings that some of these editorials may have concerned themselves with the purification and improvement of devices and practices of political democracy in this country.

school board would insure a majority of intelligent and capable educational officials. He did, however, look forward to seeing a board—whose duties would encompass school visiting, fiscal and legal matters—which would be responsible to the electorate for the execution of a specific job. Another weakness which he hoped to correct was the arrangement in which only two officers, viz., the superintendent of schools and the chairman of the Council's Committee on Schools, were required to know something about the educational problems upon which the entire Council was voting. An aggravating condition was the annual rotation of the Committee on Schools; even if the superintendent were elected for two years, he would meet an obvious difficulty in working with a changing committee.<sup>4</sup>

Although Larned elsewhere spoke of the broad cultural aims of educational agencies, his first official report emphasized the crucial role played by public education in the material prosperity of a community. Further, he urged support for the schools because of the aid they contribute in preserving the social order by teaching the duties and restraints of citizenship. At a later date, in his library promotion, he made broader inferences as to the preservation of the status quo by educational dissemination. There was one major difference, one might say a contradiction, between his library thinking and his philosophy of public education. In the one case he believed that subscription libraries were a necessary supplement to tax-supported institutions;<sup>5</sup> in the other, he posited a

clear superiority of public schools over all others, whether they be private, incorporated, or parochial.

In the field of school administration Larned carried on the same struggle for improvements as other city school officials were experiencing at the time. (In some places victories had already been won.) He attacked the inefficiency and lack of economy in running a districted system in which a complete grade system and a complete plant were required for each school district. Of the various methods being used to abolish the small school district, he preferred elimination of districts to the device of consolidation. One of the by-products to be gained was a reduction in the number of principalships: the system could then afford better—because fewer—trained men for these positions.

Larger schoolhouses were needed to accommodate the increasing school population. Fire and other hazards must be reduced in newer school buildings. Steam heat was to replace stoves, which not only were wasteful and undependable but also gave off noxious gases. Smaller recitation rooms were advised for new buildings in order to obviate the necessity for crowding many groups into the school assembly.

Observing that the ratio of school attendance to the potential school population was only 50 per cent, Larned argued for a somewhat circumscribed form of compulsory attendance to extend the benefits of public education to all those "who are not, after a proper age, doing work, in fit employments, for some part of the year, or who are not detained from school by feeble health, or who are not receiving proper instruction at home." Anticipating the Liberty Leaguers of his day who might argue that any form of compulsion was undemocratic, Larned

<sup>4</sup> Buffalo Public Instruction Department, *Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education, 1872*, pp. 9-16.

<sup>5</sup> Buffalo Library, *Forty-seventh Annual Report (1882-83)*, p. 11.

insisted that a free society which gave every citizen a voice in its affairs had a right to demand intelligence and discrimination. Rugged individualism had to submit to at least a few social restraints in order to insure the welfare of the collective whole.

For those whose needs were not most adequately met by a regularly graded school system, supplementary services were recommended. Those pupils who were not amenable to ordinary school discipline were to be sent to a graded school of correction. It was argued that dismissal from school aggravates rather than cures. An ungraded school, offering specific subjects such as mathematics and science, was urged in order to meet the needs of those who could benefit by these studies but who could attend only at irregular times of the year. Carrying on the work of his predecessor in office, Larned advised the extension of evening-school facilities to include a high, or industrial, school "designed to furnish a course of instruction to young mechanics and artisans, especially in geometry, algebra, mechanical drawing and designing, practical chemistry, natural philosophy, and applied science generally." The advantages of such a school to the industrial community could not be rated too high.<sup>6</sup>

The revision in grading which Larned proposed was designed to distribute the first shock of academic learning over a longer period of time. The use of textbooks was to be postponed to later grades; the very young were to receive "more living instruction from the lips of their teachers." Reading was to be taught by the word method, and words were to be associated with objects or drawings on the blackboard. Children in

the entering grade were to be approached through simple, familiar subjects such as forms, colors, numbers, etc., and led "by curiosity and by amusement, to question and to remember. . . ." Arabic notation and the concept of number were to be taught by a system which sounds, from Larned's description, like one of the English revisions of Pestalozzi.<sup>7</sup>

Contrary to an assumption commonly held in the period which preceded the kindergarten movement, Larned maintained that teaching skill is signally important for the first-grade teacher. The foundations of manners, morals, and language are laid in these very early years, and the quality of the teaching personnel has very vital effects on the "plastic natures that are placed in their hands to mould." Firmly convinced of the importance of habits fixed at the bottom of the educational ladder, Larned fought against pressure which was frequently brought to bear on him to secure the appointment to the primary department of girls whose only qualification was that they knew the rudiments well enough to teach. He advocated the establishment by law of a system of preparatory education, examination, and certification to regulate the entrance of teachers into all grades of the school system.

One of the most unusual affirmations of Larned's belief in a thoroughgoing democracy (to be discussed later) was his idea about the proper relationship of the principal to his teaching staff. The right of the principal "to supervise, to superintend and to direct" was not to be questioned. But, on the other hand, authority was not to be confused with arbitrary power. Equality was to be the keynote of the executive to his co-laborers and as-

<sup>6</sup> Buffalo Public Instruction Department, *op. cit.*, pp. 38-39, 86-87.

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 57-59. Douai's *Manual for the Introduction of Froebel's System* was recommended to first-grade teachers.

sociates. "The Principal of a school should make the subordinate teachers his council—his cabinet. . . . Frequent meeting of the teachers of each school should be held for the purpose of consultation upon subjects touching the welfare and well-working of the school. . . ."<sup>8</sup>

Larned's ideas concerning the teaching of history are fresh even today. The thread of historical process was not to be broken or interrupted by analytical teaching, questioning, and periodical examination. Cistern-filling might be all right for arithmetic, grammar, and geography; the object of history teaching was general diffusion, expansion, refreshment, and stimulation of feeling, imagination, thought! If learning progress had to be measured and tested, weekly reading summaries could accomplish this end.<sup>9</sup> Among the many reasons given to justify the place awarded history in the curriculum, those which speak of the "exercise of judgment and imagination," "ethical lessons and instructive examples of character," and "cultivation of patriotism" are not the most important. The true significance of history lies in the nexus of past and present; just as the percipient mind is dependent for knowledge and appreciation on the historical perspective provided by memory, so present events are meaningless without the related furnishings of the past which history stores up for recollection. History may be taught most profitably from present problems and events with reference to historical causes and effects.<sup>10</sup>

<sup>8</sup> Buffalo Public Instruction Department, *op. cit.*, pp. 74-75.

<sup>9</sup> "School-Reading versus School-Teaching of History," in J. N. Larned, *Books, Culture and Character* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin & Co., 1906), pp. 177-87.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 161-73; Buffalo Public Instruction Department, *op. cit.*, p. 69.

Other respects in which Larned revealed awareness of his immediate society may be mentioned. "Drawing" was advocated, not so much as an instrument in the process of learning and expression (its later context), but as a skill which possessed direct utility for the improvement of artisans and mechanics. The introduction of German was advised as a regular school subject, first, because it was practical to be acquainted with the native language of a large part of the Buffalo population and, second, to induce the German-speaking people to send their children to the public schools. The assumption was that it was only natural for these people to want their children to learn the reading and writing of German as well as English.<sup>11</sup>

#### CONSERVATIVE DEMOCRAT

Education through formal and informal agencies had a prominent position in Larned's tridimensional picture of cultural development. The widening and lengthening processes were to be found, respectively, in material advancement and in the acquisition of practical knowledge. Progress on a horizontal plane had been functional to the advance of the merchant and industrial classes. The deepening process remained to be accomplished. The fact that the middle class had grown with and had been the nurse of freedom, was to Larned a fortuitous circumstance. Be that as it may, the dissolution of restrictive feudalism certainly had gone hand in hand with the growth of cities and the mercantile characteristic of mobility. William Graham Sumner argued similarly that the middle class was the bulwark of political freedom; but, whereas Sumner concluded that freedom would be endangered if the mid-

<sup>11</sup> Buffalo Public Instruction Department, *op. cit.*, pp. 54-55.

dle class lost its hegemony, Larned felt that the process of liberation must be completed by extending popular rights to the artisan and the laborer. The burghers had gained real freedom in a large part by virtue of their facility of intercommunication. The power gained by the common mass was "more in seeming than in reality"; it was in proportion as the people at large "found opportunity for organization and united action."

Thus it was, thought Larned, that, on the whole, all political choice before his own era was limited to two parties between which there was little fundamental difference. Real public opinion had been a negligible force before the advent of numerous and swift agencies for communication of ideas and movements. It was, therefore, a patent social danger that a fuller democracy, with its fluidity, its multiplicity of parties, groups, and choices, was coming to fruition when the public mind had not as yet been prepared for it. People were conscious of and eagerly watching the changing pattern of parties and factions but were hardly trained to make choices which would conduce to permanent progress. Somewhere in his makeup Larned seems to have harbored a lurking feeling of insecurity when he viewed the radical social changes contemplated by populism, Georgism, or socialism. He described his period as a "chaotic and anarchic interval" between fixed class alignments and politico-clerical control, on the one hand, and some elastic arrangement which it was impossible to foresee, on the other.<sup>12</sup>

On us falls the clash of social elements breaking out of their old combinations and seeking affinities for the new; the disorder of a crumbling labor system; the disturbed security of all provident capital; the shocks of increasing hostility between head and hand, or between

schemer and toiler, or between pursuer and worker, in the industrial world; the persisting mischief of dishonest monetary projects; the continual eruption of mad social theories, anarchic and nihilistic, and the widening acceptance of more innocent and more dangerously delusive social dreams. . . .<sup>13</sup>

Larned's unwitting part in the conservative defense during the restlessness engendered by the depression of 1893 was to pit the educational force of the public library against the hasty adoption of new social theories and political innovations.<sup>14</sup> The school of life had been ineffectual in coping with "the unrest, the discontent, the desire, which torment such an age of revolution as ours." It was his concern to provide for the intelligent guidance of the alliances and organizations which were then forming with "appalling facility."<sup>15</sup>

However much comfort such thoughts may have given the defenders of the status quo, it would be unfair to say that Larned entertained an allegiance to them. His concern for true political democracy was always as serious as well as a sincere one. Free education and free books were, in his eyes, the foundation of an enduring democracy.

Free corn in old Rome bribed a mob and kept it passive. By free books and what goes with them in modern America we mean to erase the mob from existence. There lies the cardinal difference between a civilization which perished and a civilization that will endure.<sup>16</sup>

<sup>12</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. C8-C9. Larned does not mention any parties or social formulas by name; he must have been making specific reference when he said: "They are undergoing dissolution, breaking into shifting factions, or making room for ephemeral experiments in new party organizations. . . . The day of pure duality in politics is gone."

<sup>14</sup> "American Library Association Lake Placid Conference," *Library Journal*, XIX (1894), 344.

<sup>15</sup> "Address of the President [of the A.L.A.]," *ibid.*, pp. C1-C2.

<sup>16</sup> "The Freedom of Books," *Library Journal*, XXI (1896), 324.

<sup>13</sup> "Retrospect and Prospect in the Last Years of the Century," *Library Journal*, XXI (1896), C5-C8.



## LIBRARIAN

The secondary and collegiate institutions were not reaching the masses. The common school was but a preparatory step for subsequent education. What agencies could be depended upon to educate toward endowing democracy with reality and meaning? There was a time—viz., before mid-century—says Larned, when the newspapers were disseminating worth-while information. But the commercialization of the press, culminating in mercenary and unscrupulous Pulitzers and Hearsts who pandered to every vice and vulgarity of the popular taste, had frustrated for all time the pivotal role which the newspaper might have played in a democratic society. An extremely alarming condition was presenting itself to the broad-visioned citizen of the 1890's. A half-educated public opinion was being molded by a trivial, impertinent, vulgar press. If newspaper management could be made responsible to the state in a manner similar to other educational institutions, no limit could be set to the cultural progress it would nurture. But it was impossible to attain such responsibility. It was left to the public library to counteract the factionalism of public life and the flippancy of the press with the eclecticism and seriousness of its book collections.<sup>17</sup>

The greatest liberating force in modern society, as Larned saw it, was the theory of evolution. It made all thinking minds sensitive to the new possibilities available to human reason and attracted into educational enterprise much of the energies which had formerly been absorbed in industrial pursuits. The diffusion of knowledge was no longer func-

tional to mere supply and demand. A group of inventive minds—the librarians—was pressing forward with its public libraries and adapting them to every conceivable social condition.

It becomes a "Traveling Library" to make its way into villages and rural corners of the land. It becomes a "Home Library" to reach the tenement-houses and purlieus of the city. It spreads itself in branches and delivery stations. It distributes choice reading in the schools, to broaden the teacher's work. It drums and advertises its unpriced wares like a shop-keeper, avaricious of gain. It is taking up the eager, laborious, strenuous spirit of the present age, and wresting some large part of it away from the sordid activities of life, to give it unmercenary aims.

As a parallel to his rather materialistic interpretation of the progress of culture, Larned gives great credit to a long line of educational missionaries who have stimulated the march of education through the centuries. He mentions in his first significant group Comenius, La Salle, the Jesuits, the Jansenists, etc. This first broadening movement, however, had reached only the economically able middle class. The next "line of apostolic teachers, agitators, and administrators"—Pestalozzi, Father Girard, Humboldt, Brougham, Froebel, and Horace Mann—provided that flowering which permanently established universal, free education as a good in itself. Education was no longer purely utilitarian, to be justified as political, vocational, or professional preparation; it was an absolute good, to be placed somewhere near the top of the hierarchy of spiritual attainments.

The free school, the academy, and even the college were important, to be sure, but not enough. Great storehouses of knowledge, the public libraries, were established to cap the process. For a short time the librarians guarded their treasures and waited for inquiries. But

<sup>17</sup> "Address of the President," *op. cit.*, pp. C3-C4; "Retrospect and Prospect," *op. cit.*, pp. 9-12; also *Books, Culture and Character*, pp. 56-60, 103, 121, 126-28, 130-34.



this passive stage did not last long. A new missionary zeal seized librarianship and sent it out to organize its functions, reach the people, and make a forceful impact upon the culture in which it operated.<sup>18</sup>

The public library was, then, next to the air which people breathed, the greatest common possession man could boast; it represented the sum total of the achievements of human genius since the beginnings of written speech.<sup>19</sup> It was impossible to measure its intellectual and moral performance in a community, though, of a certainty, all who used it were broadened by it. By this it was not implied that "books . . . are the supreme sources of culture." They are, repeating Larned's figure of speech, "the fertilizers for it, and . . . a great collection of books in a public library is a fountain of irrigation for every kind of fruitful planting that is done in the community around it." The position of the library is that of a ubiquitous auxiliary agency which enriches the effectiveness of all contributions to community life.<sup>20</sup>

One of the contradictions of Larned's career was that his entire span of years as a librarian (1877-97) was spent as superintendent of a library that was not public. Although he criticized the facilities provided by the district school libraries in Buffalo, he did not think that the library of the Young Men's Association should be taken over by the city. He did not feel that a comparable collection and similar privileges could be made available in a free library. His eyes must have been half closed when he accepted the argument that "so far as adults are

concerned . . . few persons, or none in this country, who would read good books if they had them, can be unable to pay the moderate sum of three dollars per year for library privileges." He did, however, insist that something had to be done for those school children of Buffalo whose parents were not provident enough to secure library privileges for them by becoming members of the Young Men's Association. His suggestion—which was accepted—was to give tickets of privilege to fifty students in the schools. Although the success of this scheme seemed doubtful at first,<sup>21</sup> Larned soon reported satisfaction with the idea and increased the number of tickets of privilege to 600 in 1891, 800 in 1893, and 1,000 in 1894.

When Larned pointed out in his first report as superintendent of the Buffalo Library that the book collection was not lacking in the mechanic arts and urged a continued and "increased endeavor to furnish to manufacturers and mechanics the works which may be serviceable to them,"<sup>22</sup> little did he realize that the factors of technology and economics would later force him to relinquish his ideas as to the advantages which the Buffalo Library possessed over a tax-supported free library. Ten years later he observed that the expansion of demand on the library had resulted quite as much from industrial and material progress as from the general spread of popular culture. He was forced to admit that, as a result of the rapid introduction of technological improvements in local manufactures, his subscription library could not afford the newer, more expensive scientific and technical books as well as a tax-sup-

<sup>18</sup> "The Mission and Missionaries of the Book," in *Books, Culture and Character*, pp. 81-98.

<sup>19</sup> "The Freedom of Books," *op. cit.*, p. 324.

<sup>20</sup> "The Influence of a Public Library," *Buffalo Historical Society Publications*, XIX (1915), 55-58.

<sup>21</sup> Buffalo Library, *Forty-seventh Annual Report* (1882-83), pp. 11-12; *Forty-ninth Annual Report* (1884-85), p. 9.

<sup>22</sup> *Forty-second Annual Report* (1877-78), pp. 23-25.

ported city library.<sup>23</sup> Instead of immediately suggesting tax support, Larned looked to the philanthropists for aid in purchasing special collections, holding forth the promise of engraving the names of donors on the library walls. One instance of such a donation was recorded in the superintendent's report for 1893-94. The contribution of a Mr. Albright was said to have strengthened considerably the library's resources for those engaged in scientific industries.<sup>24</sup>

But patching up an institution that was out of harmony with the materialistic base of mass culture was not enough. Failure was advancing inexorably. In the "bad" year, 1893, Larned announced that because of fire losses, the cost of a new building, increased debt, and interest charges the library was in bad straits. What Larned did not realize was that these burdens could have been absorbed in better times by income on the association's investments and by new memberships; that the Buffalo Library, in a peculiar way, was the victim of the dialectic of social forces. As he himself helplessly reported:

Two important facts in the history of the Library during the past year oppose one another painfully. One is the occurrence of a remarkable increase in the public demands upon it; the other is a continued narrowing of the means which it possesses for meeting those demands.<sup>25</sup>

Other subscription libraries had experienced and were experiencing the same difficulty—more people had time to read, but fewer had the income to pay for reading privileges. Larned soon discovered that his school tickets went "a little way toward redeeming us [the city of Buffalo] from the discredit in which we

stand, as being very nearly the only city in America which does not support a collection of books for free public use."<sup>26</sup>

The progressive tendencies of Larned's library philosophy make it difficult to explain his attitude as regards the Buffalo Library. His association with the "interest" group at this institution probably explains his stand on the question of transferring the library to public auspices. In other matters he was an innovator. His library was probably the first (1877) to completely reclassify under the Dewey Decimal System. Buffalo had one of the first children's rooms in the country. The open-access stack was rare when Larned instituted it. Another library feature, the Sunday opening, then new to public institutions, was successfully tried under Larned's administration. It should be remarked also that Sunday reading privileges were free in subscription libraries and attracted people who were not seen much in the library on other days.<sup>27</sup> Larned noticed this quiet, well-behaved, and studious clientele and reported his observation almost annually. He never was aware—at least he did not remark upon it, as many other librarians did in their reports—that these Sunday readers came from the part of the wage-earning mechanic class who had neither time nor energy to come to the library for week-night reading.

Larned's ideas on the shaping of a public library book collection were, in their broader aspects, most democratic. He warned against such aristocratic conceptions as would bring to the scholar and historian a cross-section of an all-inclusive collection such as that of the British Museum. Rather should one aim

<sup>23</sup> *Fifty-second Annual Report* (1887-88), pp. 7-10.

<sup>24</sup> *Fifty-eighth Annual Report* (1893-94), p. 8.

<sup>25</sup> *Fifty-seventh Annual Report* (1892-93), p. 8.

<sup>26</sup> *Fifty-ninth Annual Report* (1894-95), p. 9. Within two years of this report, the Buffalo Young Men's Association had contracted with the city for the transfer of the library to municipal ownership.

<sup>27</sup> *Fifty-second Annual Report* (1887-88), p. 12.

at a small, well-selected book stock which would answer to the literary and inquiry needs of a specific population. The danger latent in the storehouse conception of the public library was that it would be impossible to explain to the taxpayers' satisfaction the necessity for a burdensome institution whose "growth is so much in a direction above the heads of the people." A reaction was likely to ensue against such an educational frill.

The public library had an active responsibility for the diffusion of knowledge so as to bring to the people the greatest number of profitable influences found in books. Fully cognizant that the word "profitable" needed the same sort of definition as the word "good" in the Benthamite formula, Larned proceeded to explain himself. He hastened to deny that he meant anything like censorship, especially the censorship of fiction. The novel, that is, the "good" novel, contributed to the "vigorous and symmetrical growth of human character" in as great a measure as the more solid literary productions. It had, moreover, some functions which it was even better suited to perform than other forms of literature—i.e., the universalization of human character and the extension of a reader's social environment far beyond the possibilities of primary contact.<sup>28</sup>

But, said Larned, the novel also lends itself easily to "base counterfeiting." The "bad" novel has properties which lead to intellectual and moral enervation, especially if one is given to intemperate reading of such literature. With Horace Mann, he insisted that the ruck and common of fiction books glorify villainy and vice, making them conspicuously provocative of contemplation; that these books give an unreal picture of life

and encourage "unwholesome falsities of sentiment." He felt, therefore, that the libraries should exclude novels of questionable standard.<sup>29</sup>

Knowing that this formulation was having its difficulties elsewhere with a novel-reading public which cried "Censorship!" Larned had to expand his ideas and give them the sanction of universality. To begin with, he advocated, as the safest policy, that the librarian await the consensus of literary judgment. In relying thus upon literary opinion Larned seems to have expected an affirmation of his own distinction between "good" and "bad" books. His confidence lay in his description of the Teutonic conception of "art as a moral conception." What the critics praised would possess a purity in keeping with Larned's own standards. As for the historically important, representative literature of the past, another set of standards was needed. The drama of the Restoration, a great part of the famous novels of the eighteenth century, the older romance, and a good deal of the literature which has been translated into English from other languages—all these constitute a body of literature which is important to the student but which hardly finds a place in the local public library collection. Responsibility for the purchase and circulation of these books should be placed squarely upon the shoulders of the reading public. Questionable books should be purchased only after insistent public pressure; they should be issued with a warning statement as to their general character.<sup>30</sup>

<sup>28</sup> *Books, Culture and Character*, pp. 137-44; Mary and George C. Mann (eds.), *Life and Works of Horace Mann* (Boston: Lee & Shepard, 1891), III, 18-31.

<sup>29</sup> Buffalo Library, *Forty-sixth Annual Report* (1881-82), pp. 11-12; *Books, Culture and Character*, pp. 61-64, 145-52; "Improper Books," *Library Journal*, XX (1895), C35.

<sup>30</sup> "Public Libraries and Public Education," *Library Journal*, IX (1884), 6-12; also in *Books, Culture and Character*, pp. 137-57.

Thus it was that Larned elevated the amalgam of his own preconceptions and fears of social disapproval to the level of a universal law. He went further and waxed mystic:

Our minds are as sensitive to a moral force of gravitation as our bodies are sensitive to the physical force, and we are as conscious of the downward pull upon us of a vulgar tale or a vicious play as we are conscious of the buoyant lift of one that is nobly written. We have, likewise, a mental touch, to which the texture of coarse literature is as distinct a fact as the grit in a muddy road that we grind with our heels.<sup>31</sup>

The objection to censorship then disappears automatically. Here is the test question: "Does the book leave any kind of fine and wholesome feeling in the mind of one who reads it?" Moreover, fearing, apparently, that his formula was just vague enough to allow some of the purple literature of the Mauve Decade to pass through moral censorship, Larned repeatedly condemned in rather specific terms the slogan: "Art for Art's Sake." He accused those who subscribed to this foreign literary conception of withdrawing attention from the content of art with the sole purpose of using art as the vehicle of the ignoble, the vile, and the vulgar.<sup>32</sup>

There was an opinion among the librarians of Larned's period that any reading was better than no reading at all; that if the library would start its readers off with Henty, Alger, Optic, and the like, it could unobtrusively attract them on an ascending plane to Scott, Shakespeare, and Homer. Such an approach Larned considered illusory. Cheap novels had a druglike power of leading to addiction and consequent mental debility. However much Larned

protested his neutrality in so controversial a question, he definitely seems to have sided with the novel-exclusionists. Although he abhorred the Alger stories for their low literary quality, he probably did not object to their themes. One of his favorite recommendations was the *Autobiography of James Nasmyth*. His preference for this book arose from the fact that it was an example of success by planning and perseverance; he was fond of recommending other "industrial" biography as well.<sup>33</sup>

#### ADULT EDUCATOR

Larned's trust that "more and more" education was the best assurance of a just, free, democratic commonwealth is nowhere in better evidence than in his ideas on university extension. Not having had university training himself, he explained that his attitude at the time he was prepared and ready for college was that "the college seemed hopelessly remote and inaccessible—placed among the luxuries of life, for a favored few." For whatever reason, whether it was the public's condescending attitude toward higher education as being largely "theoretical," or whether it was economic incapacity, it was certainly obvious that very few young men got an opportunity for higher education.<sup>34</sup>

Thus, at a period in life when character was only half molded, the young man was cast out into business life, where attitudes of competition, selfishness, harshness, and aggressiveness were inculcated. The ideology of commerce was a dangerous counteragent to the ideas of breadth, participation, and altruism, which were

<sup>31</sup> "The Selection of Books for a Public Library," *Library Journal*, XX (1895), 271.

<sup>32</sup> *Books, Culture and Character*, pp. 45-49; "The Selection of Books for a Public Library," *op. cit.*, p. 272.

<sup>33</sup> *Books, Culture and Character*, p. 37.

<sup>34</sup> "An Experiment in 'University Extension,'" *Library Journal*, XIII (1888), 75-76; "The University Extension Movement," *Buffalo Historical Society Publications*, XIX (1915), 83-89.

so desirable to the smooth working of a democratic community. The only way to shield young men from these baser influences was to armor them with finer tastes, higher thoughts, and larger views—such character traits as would not be “reconcilable with an ignoble course of life.” Those social forces which made great wealth an end in itself, “for show and power,” must be fought.<sup>35</sup> Society, as it advanced technologically, was being divided into two large groups—“a great army of common laborers, another of skilled workmen, another of clerical employees, all in the service and under the command of a powerful body of the capitalist. . . .” Both sides needed “all the lift of public spirit that can move them” if they were to operate successfully together. University extension was as necessary to the public weal as were any of the other services and educational agencies already in existence.

We want it as we want everything that can liberate and liberalize capable minds; that can interest them in values not measurable by the standard dollar; that can weaken the increasing money-worship of the time, and lessen the discords which that worship brings into all spheres of industrial life.

The plan which Larned followed, one which had been used successfully in England, had been suggested at a librarians’ convention by Herbert Baxter Adams. The aim of the movement was to take a young scholar or college teacher out of the cloistered classroom and create for him a peripatetic chair in his own subject field. He was to lecture and lead discussion for short periods of time wherever he could find a willing audience. In accordance with Professor Adams’ suggestion that public libraries initiate this movement, Dr. Edward W. Bemis was invited

to Buffalo (1888) and was assigned a conference room with a sort of seminar book-collection in the library.

The discussions sponsored here were concrete and stimulating. Larned gloried in the fact that all shades of opinion were represented and that everybody participated. It was a “most remarkably mixed company of people.” There were a large number of women from all classes in the community; there were working-class leaders, professional men, prominent businessmen and capitalists, “followers of Henry George, disciples of Marx, and other socialistic sectarians.” There were lectures and discussions on wages, profits, co-operation and profit-sharing, labor organization and legislation, immigration, education, taxation (especially the single tax), monopoly, and the theories of socialism and anarchy. The beauty of these meetings was that Dr. Bemis brought to them practical as well as academic knowledge and, by his scientific impartiality, encouraged mutual confidence and moderation in the discussions.<sup>36</sup>

#### POLITICAL ECONOMIST

Although Larned was confident that the correct type of education, aided by the force of conscience, would solve the difficulties which arose among men and classes, he was always fearful of the immoralities of industry and the excesses of labor. When he was treating the actualities of his society, this analysis of ethical relationships took on geometric designs of equal obligation between parties and made the “unequal” or “unfair” synonymous with the unnatural. The law of morals to which man was subject tended to force conduct along a straight line as

<sup>35</sup> Larned may have been influenced at this point by Veblen’s *Theory of the Leisure Class*; there is no concrete evidence that he had read that book.

<sup>36</sup> “An Experiment in ‘University Extension,’” *op. cit.*, p. 76.



inexorably as the law of right motion ruled matter.<sup>37</sup>

He found it very difficult, however, to retain his faith in "conscience" when he observed that "business" operated on a gambling basis and was not adequately functional to production and exchange. "Business" was exhibiting an alarming tendency toward becoming a "barbaric scramble" for wealth and power. The weapons used—viz., misrepresentation, adulteration, false labeling—constituted "infamous treason against the system of industrial exchange which upholds the civilization of the world."<sup>38</sup> The two golden rules of business named in Larned's little book which was written as an ethical text for school children were:

To give to others the good value you would have them give to you.

To take no gain that is got by making another suffer loss.

Lest he be suspected of advocating socialistic reform, Larned hastened to explain that it was not "equality" which he sought, but "equity." Anything gained by virtue of superior strength or intellect without causing a disadvantage to someone else was legitimate and just. Capital which accrued to one who has contributed more or less to its creation had certain rights in society. Capital gained by speculation, unproductive investment, increased land values not created by the owner, and dishonesty had no such rights.<sup>39</sup> Larned shows a very direct influence of land-reform doctrines when he says: "I certainly cannot, for myself,

satisfactorily refute those cogent arguments which sustain the doctrine that the soil and surface of the earth are the common property of its inhabitants . . ." (p. 50). There was something manifestly unjust about an economic structure one-third of whose capital was of the unearned type. Political economy was inadequate to the task of rectifying this condition because it devoted itself only to a *description* of the relationships of production and distribution. What was needed was a science of "ethical economy" to see that the fruits of productive effort are justly distributed. Thus again Larned made his analysis from observable phenomena and then turned to a mystic faith in the inevitable upward movement of human morality (pp. 55-63).

The relationship between capital and labor constituted a problem as vital as the slave question had been. It was a question of how justice could be expected to handle a situation in which one man had mastery of another. The equity between the owner of the tools and the one who used them in production had to be decided. Wage-slavery had taken the place of chattel slavery. Whenever one man, in giving his labor to another, exercised less than equal freedom in arranging the terms of compensation, that condition partook of the nature of slavery. Inasmuch as labor could not engage in productive activity unless capital was willing to supply the tools and pay wages, it was enslaved. It could only throw itself at the feet of capital and be satisfied with a subsistence wage (pp. 9-25). Larned's eloquence and indignation in dealing with the subject of wage-labor and capital was probably provoked by the rhetoric of one of Marx's American interpreters. But his attack was soon tempered so that it remarked only a the-

<sup>37</sup> *A Primer of Right and Wrong for Young People in Schools and Families* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin & Co., 1902), pp. 19-21 and *passim*.

<sup>38</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 100-106.

<sup>39</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 108; *Talks about Labor, and Concerning the Evolution of Justice between the Laborers and the Capitalists* (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1876), pp. 38-53. The discussion which follows is a précis of this book; page numbers will be given in the text in parentheses.



oretical advantage of capital over labor. The advantage never applied fully. It was mitigated by the capitalists' human feelings, philanthropy, etc. (pp. 26-32). Larned apparently didn't recognize that margin of liberality which capital could afford in a profitable, expanding economy.

This system was askew because productive work could not go on without capital and because those who had no capital—a predominant part of the population—were forced, out of the necessity for bread, clothing, and shelter, to seek the assistance of capital. The very fact that such power was concomitant with wealth distorted an entire culture in which acquisition was the central activity. Since there was no differentiation in the native capacities of men which would endow some with greater ability than others to amass wealth, Larned concluded that it was by channelizing their efforts along mercantile and financial lines that men became rich.

In a society where the accumulation of wealth was man's central motif, good workmanship, art, literature, and science and invention would suffer. The mechanics and artisans could not make the best product possible if they had to divide their intelligence between their craft and the struggle to get a proper share of the value of their products.

The inventors, the scientific discoverers, the originators of new methods and new ideas, the path-finders of commerce, the philosophers, the poets, the men of learning, of literature and of art . . . are well-nigh invariably men who cannot or do not get a fair share of the wealth of the world in return for their service to it.

In short, possession of wealth is in inverse proportion to the value of the social service performed. By drawing talent away from bench, anvil, and factory into the "business" pursuits, the foundations of business were being undermined.

There remained no incentive for artisan-ship; the commercial occupations were overcrowded; all in all, the entire occupational world was depressed (pp. 70-78). Here again the insistent current of justice was expected to work out a more equitable relationship between owner and worker. Theoretically, capital was just as dependent upon labor for its operations as labor was dependent upon the owners of the tools of production for the wherewithal to exercise its skills and capacities (pp. 80-81).

The wage system could never achieve the desired equity. What was to replace it? Larned examined many ideas of social alleviation. The producers' co-operative (which was being tried at the time by mechanics and artisans of all kinds) would never be successful, Larned thought, because the workers did not have the capacity for industrial enterprise. After all, "the mechanic working-man . . . is a working-man, in the received sense of the word, simply because he has no aptitude nor training for the shrewd arithmetic of commerce. . . ." No sheer banding-together of workers could make provision for the organizational ability which the capitalist contributed to enterprise. This was at least a partial repudiation of another of Larned's claims, viz., that business ability was the result of channelization of effort along managerial and financial lines; nowhere are these conflicting theories reconciled (pp. 81-82).

The attempts of workingmen to better their condition were fraught with misunderstanding of the true principles of human relationship. Instead of working toward harmonious dealings—which would win out in the inevitable course of events—the workers were unreasonably provoking antagonism. One could sympathize with the discontent of the work-

ingmen and their efforts to improve themselves by organization. But these efforts were, on the whole, misguided. Instead of breaking down the wage system, they were aiding in its intrenchment. Instead of attempting to secure larger rewards for superior labor value, they were leveling wages downward to a mean average for the several trades. Agitation for uniform wages not only depressed the general wage level but also deprived the individual of his right to bargain independently for the disposition of his labor and the conditions of his employment. If there was to be any legal intervention in the organization of industry, it should prevent "all such interferences with individual freedom as these, whether by combinations on the side of labor or on the side of capital . . ." (pp. 85-88).

The "strike" represented to Larned a type of coercive activity which he abhorred. There was no objection to a group's voluntary abstention from work in order to gain a common end. But unions never operated on purely voluntary terms. They used every type of dictatorial method, even personal violence, to compel a man to go out on strike regardless of whether this man felt he could afford the consequent loss of income. The evils of the strike were far worse than the system of wage-labor which was being attacked. Strike leaders—here Larned fits in perfectly with the conservative defense of the time—were mischief-makers, agitators, disturbers of peaceful relations, unscrupulous men whose greatest pleasure was to start a fight. They did not represent the needs of the class they were leading. Their leadership had been attained by extraordinary energies and shrewd manipulation. From the point of view of the workers' needs, strikes were often ill timed and maliciously instigated. De-

mands were made when industries were "up against it" and were glad to curtail production. There was even reason to suspect that the employers were at the bottom of some of the disputes which labor initiated (pp. 88-92). No wonder then that the workers gave impartial observers a bad impression! There was "just as much selfishness and just as much narrow one-sidedness of consideration on the part of the laborers as there is on the part of the capitalists, with more ignorance, but with less power" (pp. 92-93).

Notwithstanding his bitter attack on the trade-unions, Larned insisted that his greater attention was being turned to the rectification of evils which arose from the superior position held by the capitalists. They held the power, and, in Larned's moral world, it was up to the more powerful party to make the necessary concessions. The solution lay in a system of dividends to supplement the wages of labor. To be sure, no equality of footing in the entrepreneurial arrangement was meant. There was no intention of abolishing "property, nor riches, nor poverty even, so far as poverty is a just consequence of the inefficient or unfaithful performance of a man's part in the work of the world."

There were already in existence many instances of such copartnership which were successful. True, there were failures; but these failures were caused rather by the ordinary conditions of adversity than by the nature of the enterprise. There was everything in the world to be gained if labor could be educated to co-operate with capital. If workingmen could be taught the true principles of political economy—and here we may recall one of the functions which Larned said the schools and libraries would perform—they would realize that their true interests lay with the capitalists. If pub-

lic opinion could be educated to the ideas of "just rights," there would be little difficulty in getting the trade-unions to relinquish their historic antagonism to capital (pp. 82-84, 93-95). Then would the trade-union come into its own! It would set the standards of workmanship; it would grade the mechanics in accordance with training and efficiency, conferring degrees and diplomas as educational institutions do; it would arrange a dividend scale for the workers by individual, not by mass, standards.<sup>40</sup> As soon as you had made the worker, even in the smallest way, a sharer in the capital ownership and profit of business, you would change the relationship at once. Everyone would be interested in increasing capital investment and production. You would have solved the problem of finding out how to increase the wages fund so that labor would get a great share "without disturbing the social organization in which wealth is unequally distributed, and without impairing the inducements to the accumulation of wealth" (pp. 129-40).

Some difficulties were bound to arise when the dividend system was introduced. The duller workers—dull by virtue of hardship and struggle—would not accept the new conditions. The employers should get rid of these. A system of piecework was suggested as a traditional measure. Certainly the brighter and more ambitious workers would seize upon such a plan; more, they would resist the standardizing efforts of the trade-union. They would lead the union toward a more desirable function, viz., the organized government of a craft.

The introduction of this system of cooperation between capital and labor would naturally encroach somewhat up-

on the profits of capital; there was, however, room enough for some reduction of profits without making inroads on the incentive to invest and produce. Room for profit still existed by virtue of the various classic defenses of the capitalist economic structure, namely: (1) postponement of consumption or remuneration for abstinence; (2) payment for risk; (3) payment for management (pp. 146-51).

Of course, additional safeguards were needed to insure the smooth running of the system, and public sentiment had to be educated in these directions. The debt-making practice of governmental agencies should be limited because this encourages moneylenders to withdraw capital from productive enterprise. Legislative enactment should compel borrowing agencies to pay up all loans out of tax collections within three to five years of the time the loan was made. This would discourage the mortgaging of future generations with such debt loads as the Civil War had created. Measures like this, assisted by resistance to the contraction of currency<sup>41</sup> and the enforcement of a moral imperative against ostentatious, objectless, wasteful consumption, would no doubt add considerably to easing the lot of all classes. The laborer would get time to really use the refinements and surface comforts which the technology of the period was producing (pp. 120-28).

To those who were worried by Malthusian premonitions about the sustaining capabilities of the soil, Larned countered with ideas of increased machine production, restrained consumption, the existence of a frontier, and—surprising for his time—the manufacture of food from inorganic elements. More amazing than any of these insights was his predic-

<sup>40</sup> Cf. W. G. Sumner's *What Social Classes Owe to Each Other* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1883).

<sup>41</sup> "Our Money Problem," *Atlantic Monthly*, XXV (1870), 615-26.

tion of a lower birth rate which would arrive with a greater culture of the lower classes. Larned had observed that the upper classes were noticeably practicing curbs on the family size (pp. 161-62). One can assume also that Larned would add to these safeguards the reciprocal "line of right" between A and B in all business and employment relationships.<sup>42</sup>

Toward the end of the century when thoughtful minds were shifting from the problems of economic reform to the possibilities of purifying political democracy, Larned shifted with them. At the time when the muckrake was busy turning up political malfeasance all over the country, Larned sought to discover the fundamental evils of our political structure and to speculate as to how these evils could be removed.

Ill-equipped men were being sent to high office, corruption and extravagance were rampant in municipal government, people had lost interest in politics, and the organizing politician was master of the political activities of the country. The political "boss" took both his cue (as to effective organization) and his income "from corporations that crave his friendship." The increase of speed of communication and the integration of industrial, religious, and reform movements had all provided the background for political organization.<sup>43</sup>

Political machinism held sway because of the concentrated activity of the self-seeking partisans. Among the other categories of the citizenry, there were those too busy with making money and spending it to be interested; those who were so ignorant and debased that they were easily influenced; and those who were ac-

tually interested in good government but were not organized for political action. The political machine had the advantage of any well-organized minority. Tammany, for instance, had its district captains who were in close contact with the voters of the district. Starting with these captains at the base, the hierarchy moved up to the executive committee, the whole being bound by a discipline which was stricter than that of a military organization. What chance had the ordinary voter against this!

Further, the division of the state into small districts permitted party nominations by a minority of even the party voters. By gerrymandering and other forms of manipulation, control by a handful of "bosses" was assured. Under-rating the role of big business in politics, Larned felt that the greatest weakness of democracy was the system of territorial representation. The cure for this evil was the election of representatives by the people, associated voluntarily in convenient units according to their interests. Two or more such constituencies could combine for larger election of municipal, state, and national officers. By establishing this simple system of inter-party and intraparty proportional representation a great distance would be covered toward getting rid of the meaningless, outmoded, and vicious two-party system. Hardly a difficulty was involved in adopting such an electoral method. The American people were well accustomed to associating themselves in interest groups; proportional voting would not even present a novelty to them. If some still preferred to vote by districts, no one would object, provided the number of people voting in a geographical division was large enough to form a regular constituency.<sup>44</sup>

<sup>42</sup> *A Primer of Right and Wrong*, pp. 13-14, 97.

<sup>43</sup> "The Flaw in Our Democracy," *Atlantic Monthly*, LXXXIV (1899), 529-31; also "A Practicable Organization of Democracy," *ibid.*, CXII (1913), 610.

<sup>44</sup> "The Flaw in Our Democracy," *op. cit.*, pp. 531-34.

One of the greatest gains to be derived from proportional representation was the breaking-up of an anachronistic two-party system. A bisection of political opinion may have had some reality in England when the liberal middle class was establishing itself, or in the United States over the issues of "states rights vs. federalism" or slavery. Since the Civil War, however, there had been no fundamental issues. Political parties had afforded a vehicle of alternate exploitation for the "party in power." Both parties were corrupted machines supported by job-seekers and liberal "subscribers" who were intent upon picking the pockets of the citizens. Minor parties—Prohibitionist, Socialist, Populist—had appeared from time to time, but their constituencies had inevitably been reabsorbed into the two major parties. Party loyalty, exemplified by the shameful adherence of the Republican party to the policy of the reconstruction radicals, was to Larned the most irrational, sinful blindness that could be traced to bipartisan politics. The simplest and best immediate remedy he could think of was a triple division into "right," "left," and "center," with a fluidity of the first two into and out of the "center," whose function it would be to maintain a balance of power.<sup>45</sup>

Another political device which prevented the individual from making his proper imprint in our democracy was the caucus system. It was the first step by which the voter was defrauded of his right to a voice in choosing candidates. After two candidates had been chosen by their respective party caucuses, the choice which remained in the election was usually between two evils. "Among the institutions of representative popu-

lar government, therefore, the importance of the primary election is fundamental, and there is nothing . . . which needs to be protected so jealously."<sup>46</sup>

Toward the end of his career Larned's political thinking took a curious turn. The imminence of socialism became for him one of the strongest reasons for fighting "bossism" and "machinism." Upon making an inventory of all types of political temperament, from revolutionary Marxist to capitalist, it seemed to him that, numerically and by the similarity of stake among the working people and their fellow-travelers, socialism was stronger than the capitalist forces, which had no unifying philosophy. The tide could not be stopped. The horrible part of this trend was not socialism itself, although this was probably unfortunate; it was the likelihood that the politicians would take over in the name of the Socialist party and make the country's nationalized resources a new source of graft. Here lay a most powerful argument for the people to get rid of the party machine.<sup>47</sup>

In the order of social questions which agitated Larned's mind, the one which followed economic justice and political democracy was that of "patriotism" closely integrated with that of "peace and war." As early as 1900 he was promoting the concept of national pride in the great things our nation stood for—the rights of men, "life and liberty and a fair and free pursuit of happiness for all who come within its sphere." Decrying the worship of shallow symbols, easily swayed emotions, and the "our country right or wrong" ideology, he declared

<sup>45</sup> *The Caucus System: Its Failure and the Remedy* (reprinted from the *Buffalo Express*, October 12-13, 1881).

<sup>46</sup> "A Criticism of Two-Party Politics," *Atlantic Monthly*, CVII (1911), 289-300; *A Primer of Right and Wrong*, pp. 122-23, 129-30.

<sup>47</sup> "Prepare for Socialism," *Buffalo Historical Society Publications*, XIX (1915), 107-12 (reprinted from *Atlantic Monthly*, CVII [1911], 577-80).



that it was easy to be proud of one's country even when the reasons for pride were small; it was very hard to be ashamed for one's country even when the reasons loomed large.<sup>48</sup>

National pride had to be turned inward to internal injustice. A citizen's sense of honor must be directed at "black-mailing political 'bosses' and 'machines,'" "servile legislatures," "money-made Senators," and "scores of political gangs . . . in our cities and States." Men should be proud of a nationality which allows people to make the most of themselves and their material resources. With the "new nationalism," Larned insisted that this "right inspiration . . . gives him [the American] no fierce wish to crowd other less fortunate peoples to the wall, in manufacturing or in trade, by a hard use of the advantages we hold in our hands."<sup>49</sup>

It was this rabid sense of honor which was driving voters to favor wars in which their own responsibilities were negligible but in which the armed forces took all the risk. Our greatest shame was to allow our "bullying pride" and "national bigness" to induce us to send our soldiers to face "the storm of Mauser bullets on San Juan Hill. . . ." The lessons of British rabidness in the American Revolution and of the false pretenses of our own Mexican War should be our educational foundation when we come to thrashing out in democratic discussion the justice or injustice of war.<sup>50</sup>

<sup>48</sup> "Patriotism: Address Given before the Liberal Club of Buffalo, March 15, 1900," *Buffalo Historical Society Publications*, XIX (1915), 65-75.

<sup>49</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 77-81; *A Primer of Right and Wrong*, pp. 125-27.

<sup>50</sup> Olmsted, *op. cit.* pp. 26-27 (from a speech presented on October 23, 1898, on the occasion of the presentation of a loving cup to the 13th U.S. Infantry by the Saturn Club. "By some irony of fate," says Olmsted, "Mr. Larned was chosen to make the principal speech of the evening." Olmsted, in speak-

# HISTORIAN

What struck Larned as an instance of bad proportion in the teaching of history was that war, second only to acquisitiveness as a conditioner of the historical flow of culture, was given very little attention as a subject worthy of distinct and careful analysis. He was sure that, if such treatment were given, all wars, including our own War of Rebellion, would have been proved amenable to thought, discussion, and arbitration. History as it had been taught engendered a frame of mind opposite to that which was most desirable. If historic wars were discussed always with a tone of abhorrence, if causes of war were subjected to scholarly examination and cool logic, then surely would there be produced in the minds of students an ethic and a morality which would make future wars unthinkable. If the emotional frame of the Hague Conference were introduced into the classroom, then surely would international amity and good neighborliness result.<sup>51</sup>

Something remains to be said of Larned's ideas concerning the forces of history. He certainly held much stock in the power of great men to mold the destinies of nations. Unlike other hero-worshippers, however, Larned did not subscribe to the theory of divine attribution of great men, nor did he think that their influence was mainly wielded

ing of Larned's loyal Union spirit, cites one of the latter's editorials in the *Buffalo Express* of May 9, 1861, approving of blowing up houses in Baltimore if the marching Union armies were fired upon there. This editorial seemed very strange to Olmsted in view of Larned's pacifist ideas of a later date, e.g., as first president of the Buffalo Peace and Arbitration Society); also *A Primer of Right and Wrong*, p. 124, and "Patriotism . . .," *op. cit.*, pp. 75-77.

<sup>51</sup> "The Peace-Teaching of History," *Buffalo Historical Society Publications*, XIX (1915), 91-105; *Books, Culture and Character*, pp. 22-23.



through inspired, dictatorial decisions. Lincoln's greatness as a leader consisted in his ability to keep his ear to the ground, in his spiritual absorption of the thoughts of the masses.<sup>52</sup> He triumphed not so much by his deeds as by his qualities. Said Larned:

If this nation is to be truly great, it must be great as Lincoln was, by verity and simpleness, by honesty and earnestness; its politics become a fair weighing of true opinions; its diplomacy a straight acting towards just purposes and necessary ends. . . .<sup>53</sup>

There is evidence also that Larned recognized the role played by biological, geographical, and physical endowments in national development.<sup>54</sup> He categorically denied the efficacy of the supernatural in removing evil from the lives of men or in guiding their progress. Man was endowed by the Creator with a freedom which made him completely responsible for his actions. Whatever poverty, mis-hap, disease, etc., existed, was man-made and must be man-cured.<sup>55</sup>

#### SOCIAL IDEAS

Although an overview of Larned's position on social questions will not reveal a well-defined, consistent outlook, he does follow a pattern which has shown with considerable frequency in American life. We can see in fair outline the liberal democrat whose eyes are wide open to the underlying weaknesses of his genera-

tion but who is prevented by ethical and moral optimism from acting on the complete logic of his thinking.

The progressive nature of his ideas on educational administration, method, and curriculum is undeniable. No doubt exists as to the democratic overtones of his aims. But, fearful of rapid change, he was perfectly willing to sell his educational agencies to the favored ones who were interested in preserving the status quo. And yet one cannot say that he was at all close to the conservatives ideologically. He was sincerely interested in having class differences brought out into the open where they could be discussed, arbitrated, and finally eradicated.

His understanding of the plight of labor was as keen as that of any socialist of his day. However, not recognizing any determinism but that of moral progress toward the ideal, he failed to come to the socialist conclusion that the struggle between capital and labor was determined by conditions which neither side could alleviate. His attitude toward the worker, therefore, followed the humanitarian, paternalistic pattern. If only labor would be well mannered and allow the superior wisdom of capital to work out a *modus vivendi*, a bright future was assured.

The role of big business in politics was evident to Larned, but his penchant for logic and geometric ethics shunted his thinking off in the direction of amelioration. Class antagonism and direct action being repugnant, he had to rely upon persuading people to be reasonable, magnanimous, and ethical. Larned, like all who preceded and followed him in the line of good-will mediators, never saw the fruition of his formulas for peace and plenty.

<sup>52</sup> "Abraham Lincoln [address delivered February 12, 1874]," *Buffalo Historical Society Publications*, XIX (1915), 49-54; "Washington and Lincoln . . . [address delivered February 22, 1897]," *ibid.*, pp. 59-63; also *A Study of Greatness in Men* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1911), *passim*.

<sup>53</sup> "Abraham Lincoln," *op. cit.*, p. 54.

<sup>54</sup> "England's Economic and Political Crisis," *Atlantic Monthly*, LXXXI (1898), 298-311.

<sup>55</sup> "Evil: A Discussion for the Times," *Hibbert Journal*, XI (1912-13), 856-70.

## CENTRAL VERSUS DEPARTMENTAL LIBRARIES

J. C. M. HANSON

[NOTE.—Eighteen years of service in the University of Chicago Libraries offered many opportunities for observation of the relations of a central as against departmental libraries in an institution which had for many years emphasized the latter. An effort was made to outline these observations in three studies, of which the first two have been printed.<sup>1</sup> The third, intended to supplement and summarize the information presented in 1912 and 1917, was recently found by the writer among some old papers and is submitted herewith in the hope that it may prove a modest contribution to the discussion of departmental as against central libraries—a problem which still appears to agitate university authorities and librarians here as well as abroad. It was first presented before a meeting of university librarians of the Central West in answer to the following question: "In a university library with large groups of undergraduates and a rapidly growing graduate school, what steps other than the development of separate departmental libraries not located in the central library building can be undertaken to satisfy the differing needs of the two groups? Must one be favored at the expense of the other?"—J. C. M. H.]

THE framer of the question under discussion appears to have had some definite answer in mind. This answer may have been (1) a central library chiefly for undergraduates, with departmental libraries for graduates, or (2) a central library chiefly for graduates, with a separate reading room and reserve-book room for undergraduates, or (3) a central library large enough to contain reading rooms for undergraduates and also for graduate students.

<sup>1</sup> "Some Observations on the Departmental Library Problem in Universities, with Particular Reference to the University of Chicago," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, VI (1912), 280-92; "Study of Departmental Libraries of the University of Chicago, 1912-17—Observations and Experiences," *ibid.*, XI (1917), 211-21.

However this may be, the question is one on which the university librarians of the West (and, for that matter, also those of the East) might well make definite pronouncement. If librarians who spend all their time working on problems involved in (1) bringing together the necessary book resources, (2) recording and arranging these books for use, (3) bringing books and their users together—if they are not to be heard, then there is something wrong with the librarians, with their employers, or with both. There is no denying the fact that there has been a definite tendency at times to settle problems of administrative policy affecting departmental and central libraries without giving the librarians a voice in the matter. This may be accounted for either by the librarian's being without faculty rank or by his lacking the force or personality to make his influence felt.

There are many angles to this question of the central as against the departmental library; and many, perhaps most, of them are hard to grasp for one who has not for years been in the closest possible touch with the details of technical administration as affected by efforts to operate several libraries as a unit through centralization of administration in spite of the decentralization of books. In the first place, we all no doubt agree that the ideal is a library system so perfect and so well organized that, on the one hand, each department and every member thereof may obtain his books and material by turning around in a swivel chair and reaching for it and that, on the other hand, the university should also have a

central collection so well equipped that research students and instructors, as well as undergraduates and casual visitors, may find what they need without going from building to building for books on the same or closely related subjects. Granting that this ideal is beyond the reach of any institution, what is the best solution or compromise which can be offered? I shall endeavor to outline several plans.

*Plan A.*—A large central building and library with ample cubicles and stalls in the stacks for research students and members of the faculty. There are reading rooms for graduates and undergraduates, a reserve-book room, a periodical room, etc. The stacks of the central library provide space for practically the entire book collection of the university; bibliographies and reference books are, however, shelved for the most part in the reading rooms. In departments and laboratories there is no real library but rather branches, with space and equipment for reserve collections and for a limited number of books drawn from the central library for more or less permanent use, duplicating in part the books in the central collection. The branches are administered not by a librarian but by a departmental inspector from the central library working in close harmony with a faculty member of the department, on whom rests at least a part of the responsibility for books drawn by the department. This plan requires the best possible connection, by telephone and carrier, between the central library and the departments.

*Plan B.*—A central library and also as many and as large departmental and school libraries as the university can afford, with room for expansion in both the central and the departmental buildings; with duplicate catalogs; with trained li-

brarians in charge of departmental libraries; and with adequate staff and adequate reading room space. Something akin to this is being developed in certain universities, the departmental libraries differing, however, as to size, personnel, catalogs, and equipment.

*Plan C.*—Chiefly a central library, certain classes—e.g., law, technology, medicine—being, however, entirely withdrawn from the central library to constitute departmental or school libraries in charge of trained librarians and staffs. In such cases the entire class is, in a way, charged to the department by the central library. Whether or not the books are fully cataloged and classified in the central library catalogs depends on circumstances. In some instances they are so recorded; again, there may be a record only in the official catalog of the central library or no entry at all outside the departmental catalog. In one instance this practice of transferring entire classes to departments is being extended to include such classes as astronomy, mathematics, chemistry, physics, geology and paleontology, and biology (the last-named to include botany, zoölogy, bacteriology, anatomy, physiology, and medicine).

*Plan D.*—Two libraries: (1) a central library including general and composite works—e.g., academy and learned society publications, general periodicals and reference books, and government sets—and all books in the department included in the so-called "humanities," the catalogs, however, covering all books owned by the university; (2) a general science library, located perhaps at a considerable distance from the central humanities library, having adequate stacks, catalogs, equipment, and staff, but not duplicating the catalog in the humanities library except for subjects located in the science library.

*Plan E.*—The two general libraries for humanities and science mentioned in Plan D, supplemented by school or professional libraries for education, commerce, agriculture, law, astronomy, medicine, theology, and possibly also other subjects.

*Plan F.*—Dr. Poole's plan of several departments in one building, each with separate reading room, catalog, and staff. This plan was started at the Newberry Library in 1894 but has been abandoned, presumably for economic reasons. The Library of Congress had in mind a modification of the Poole plan but has also been forced to limit it, only music, government documents, manuscripts, maps, and prints being provided for. The New York Public Library has in its central building carried out a similar idea for certain subjects. Still another variation of the plan is one outlined for the University of Chicago prior to 1910, the chief departments of the humanities being located in separate buildings along one side of the Quadrangle, each building connecting with the other by means of bridges or tunnels, and each department having its special reading room and reference collections.

*Plan G.*—The German plan—the *Institutsbibliothek*—one or more professors depositing their private libraries to form the nucleus of a departmental library. The university authorities—or rather the government—is asked to vote an annual contribution for the upkeep of the library. It is entirely independent of the central library, and the latter has no responsibility whatsoever for its care and upkeep. This plan works fairly well as long as the library is small and does not require catalogs, classification, expensive equipment, or professional care. When this stage is reached, trouble looms.

Some plan similar to one of those here

mentioned or combining features of several or all of them is probably being tried out in various institutions today. University librarians no longer with us—e.g., Fletcher, Gould, Van Name, Harris, Justin Windsor—favored the strong central library with small collections charged out to departments, laboratories, and seminars. They felt that the duplication of catalogs, staff, equipment, and books in many libraries would in the end prove too expensive and tend to disrupt the university library. Dr. Milkau favored a similar plan, stating that the only solution which he could see was to place a limit which the departmental collection should not exceed. If free hand for development be given each department, either the cost of administration must become prohibitive or the central library must suffer to such an extent that it becomes in time only a shadow—a library in name only, not a strong central department supplementing and working in close harmony with all other departments of the university.

In some institutions lack of space in the central building is forcing a movement toward the departments. Entire classes have been moved from the central building on this account. The question arises: How are catalogs for the departmental libraries to be supplied in such cases? Should entries be withdrawn from the public catalogs and transferred with the books? This would seem inadvisable. Perhaps the department, through its fellows or other assistants, can provide some temporary catalog; perhaps the central library can assist in compiling the records. At best, the cost will be great and the complicated routine resulting will add appreciably to the expense of administration. The least expensive method would be to charge an entire class—e.g., chemistry—to the depart-

ment without attempting to supply a duplicate catalog. If the class is then later returned to the central building, the only expense besides cost of removal would be the cancellation of the charge or charges. If location symbols or call numbers in the central catalog have to be tinkered with every time a book is moved from a department to the central library, or vice versa, then there are breakers ahead. Forty cents a title is not too high an estimate to cover the cost of changes on catalog cards and shelf list.

If because of lack of space or for other reasons, books must be moved to a departmental library, then it seems safe to conclude that (1) transfer of an entire class, division, or section is preferable to the transfer of single books from many classes or sections and (2) if the books are likely to be returned to the central collection, it is of importance to have this fact in mind and so to formulate the records, both catalogs and shelf list, that a book on its return falls automatically into its place without change of number or entry, the only expense being the withdrawal of the charging card and its replacement in the pocket at the back of the volume.

Whatever the plan adopted, the service rendered by the university library is sure to be compared with that of near-by reference libraries which do not loan their books; do not provide reserve collections; have no stack access to speak of; and have, besides, ample funds for books, equipment, and staff. A university library with large departmental libraries, furthermore, will have to face comparison with other university libraries which have no departmental collections or, at best, few and small ones. Nonlibrarians—even university professors—seem to have much difficulty in making

allowance in such cases. This is natural enough. They want the book at a given time. In the reference library they are reasonably sure to find it in. In a university library it may be charged out, be on reserve in some laboratory, department, or office, or be misplaced by reason of the free access to shelves granted to hundreds of graduate students and instructors.

Some will contend that all these disadvantages are more than offset by the great boon afforded the professors by finding the bulk of the books likely to be referred to by them near their offices or, at any rate, in the same building in which they meet their classes. Librarians, while conceding most of the advantages of the departmental library, are likely to contend that because of administrative cost extensive decentralization of books is inadvisable. It complicates routine; requires extensive duplication of books, equipment, and personnel; and in various ways adds to the cares and worries of the library staff. In both instances human nature enters in; librarians are no different from professors in this respect. Of both it may be said with Holberg: *Naturam furca pellas ex hun kommer dog igjen den hex* (in free translation, "You can apply the pitchfork to Mother Nature as often as you please—the old witch never fails to return").

It is my belief that, in the long run, economic considerations must decide the issue, not the personal convenience or predilections of professor or librarian. The pity is that before a definite and feasible policy has been settled upon, hundreds of thousands—perhaps millions—of dollars will have been spent on experiments that lead nowhere and on equipment and books which have served only a temporary purpose.



## THE HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY: ACTIVITIES AND PUBLICATIONS

ROBERT WILSON KIDDER

### ORIGIN OF THE SURVEY

ALTHOUGH the much-talked-about idea for a historical records survey on a nation-wide scale was made a reality through the efforts of Dr. Luther H. Evans, its first national supervisor, its origins lie in the pioneering efforts of many famous American bibliographers, librarians, and archivists. According to Mr. John C. L. Andreassen, one of its regional supervisors, the inventory idea was broached as early as 1931 by Dr. Jean Stephenson and was promoted, in one form or another, by Curtis W. Garrison, A. R. Newsome, Francis S. Philbrick, Conyers Read, Robert C. Binkley, T. R. Schellenberg, and others.<sup>1</sup>

The contribution of Robert C. Binkley, late professor of history at Western Reserve University, to the survey was particularly active. A pioneer in encouraging the development of microphotography in the library field and chairman of the Joint Committee on Materials for Research of the American Library Association, he has been spoken of as "the best and most influential friend which the organization has known."<sup>2</sup> He became a major adviser among a small number, not employed by the survey, "who quickly realized the potential value of its proposed activities to officials,

scholars, members of the various professions, and the public, and supported and fought for it on all occasions."<sup>3</sup> Binkley attended many conferences with Dr. Evans and his chief associates, helped write the manuals of procedure, gave advice on policy and organization matters, assisted in the selection of personnel, and aided Dr. Evans and his chief administrators in many other ways.

Dr. Binkley's contributions to the survey ceased with his sudden death in April, 1940; but the beginnings had already been made. A number of local projects under the C.W.A. and the F.E.R.A. during 1934 and 1935, inventorying and indexing local records, had demonstrated that amateurs under supervision could do the work required. Mr. Harry L. Hopkins, federal W.P.A. supervisor, quickly recognized the value of such an inventory; and, when it became possible to use "white-collar" workers on a nation-wide scale, he suggested that Dr. Evans draft plans for a "survey of the unpublished historical materials of the country, other than the archives of the federal government."<sup>4</sup> Mr. Hopkins also relied on the advice of the Joint Committee on Materials for Research of the A.L.A., officials of the National Archives, and the Library of Congress, as well as many history professors and archivists.

<sup>1</sup> John C. L. Andreassen, "The Historical Records Survey," *Bulletin of the Louisiana Library Association*, I (1937), 9.

<sup>2</sup> Herbert A. Kellar, "An Appraisal of the Historical Records Survey," in American Library Association, Committee on Archives and Libraries, *Archives and Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1940), p. 56.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 57.

<sup>4</sup> Luther H. Evans, "The Historical Records Survey," in American Library Association, Committee on Public Documents, *Public Documents* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1936), p. 209.



Plans for the survey were completed by September, 1935. Funds totaling \$1,195,800 were made available by Presidential Letter No. 1090, dated November 15, 1935; and the *Manual of Procedure* . . . was completed by January, 1936. The project was set up as an activity of the Federal Writers' Project. By May 31, 1936, there were 3,300 employees at work in the forty-eight states and in the District of Columbia.<sup>5</sup>

With the inventory of county archives, its first project, the survey assumed responsibility for the completion of the inventory of the federal archives outside of Washington, D.C., sponsored by the National Archives and begun in January, 1936, under Dr. Philip Hamer.<sup>6</sup> Dr. Evans remained as the national supervisor until December, 1939, when he resigned to become chief of the Legislative Reference Service of the Library of Congress. Mr. Sargent B. Child succeeded Dr. Evans as national supervisor in March, 1940, and remained as national editor of the project, which meanwhile, in September, 1939, had been removed from the jurisdiction of the Federal Writers' Project and set up as a unit of the Research and Records Section, Division of Community Service Programs, Works Progress Administration, within each state.

As stated by Dr. Evans:

The basic purpose of the Historical Records Survey is the preparation of inventories and other bibliographical guides which will render more accessible the great masses of unpublished official documents of the states, counties, cities, and other units of local government throughout the country, and, also, significant non-public historical materials.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>6</sup> Kellar, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

<sup>7</sup> Cedric Larson, "The Historical Records Survey," *Wilson Bulletin*, XIII (1938), 187.

In some places it was only necessary to complete surveys begun under earlier relief programs; in most cases, however, the survey was dealing with hitherto unexplored material. Minor objectives which it was hoped the project would achieve included the stimulating of local initiative to make better provision for the preservation and the accessibility of records and the enlisting of "interest in the copying and reproduction of some of the more important records which are in danger of loss or destruction."<sup>8</sup>

The survey offered golden opportunities. Essential source materials were largely unexploited, because of inaccessibility and lack of knowledge of their contents; custodians of records had failed to appreciate the importance of their holdings, which, in many cases, were deteriorating or being destroyed at a rapid rate.

There were two very good reasons why the government could perform the task of the survey better than any private agency:

The first is that the private agency would of necessity have to perform the task from the standpoint of its own particular interest; whereas a governmental agency could perform it in such a way as to make the product useful to a diversity of interests: to public officials, archivists, librarians, scholars of all disciplines, and the general public. The second reason was well expressed in a letter written by Malcolm Wyer in a letter to the W.P.A. Administrator:

"To be effective the work must be uniformly carried out in all parts of the country. A comprehensive plan for all states is essential so that the facts will be gathered in like form with like standards of accuracy. It cannot safely be left to the various states to undertake, each in its own way. Only with a comprehensive plan will the results secure the information that can be of real value for historical purposes."<sup>9</sup>

<sup>8</sup> Evans, *op. cit.*, p. 212.

<sup>9</sup> J. M. Scammell, "Historical Records Survey: Progress Report, 1938-39," in *American Library*

We have thus far sketched the beginnings and the original purpose of the Historical Records Survey. The following pages will be devoted to a consideration (in alphabetical order) of the varied activities of the survey to September, 1941. (The phrase "to date" and similar expressions as used hereinafter should be understood as referring to September, 1941.)

#### AMERICAN IMPRINTS INVENTORIES

The American imprints inventory, second in importance only to the inventory of county archives, was the second project to be undertaken by the H.R.S. According to Mr. Douglas C. McMurtrie, who was its chief instigator and who served as historical adviser to the national supervisor, an adequate record of American printing preceding 1876—the date of Frederick Leypoldt's first issue of his famous *American Catalogue*—had been needed for many years.<sup>10</sup> The "bibliographical gap" between Evans (1800) and Leypoldt (1876) was the concern of the late H. H. B. Meyer, former bibliographer of the Library of Congress, who for many years collected titles dating from 1801 to 1876 with the intention of filling the gap himself. After the death of Mr. Meyer the project was taken up by Professor James T. Gerould, Princeton's librarian, who, in turn, recommended it to the W.P.A. authorities.<sup>11</sup>

Association, Committee on Archives and Libraries, *Archives and Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1939), p. 12.

<sup>10</sup> "W.P.A. Workers in Libraries," *Publishers' Weekly*, CXXXVIII (1940), 166.

<sup>11</sup> Douglas C. McMurtrie, "A Nationwide Inventory of American Imprints under W.P.A. Auspices," in American Library Association, Committee on Public Documents, *Public Documents, with Archives and Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1938), p. 306.

The inventory was to cover books, pamphlets, and broadsides printed anywhere in the United States before 1821; west of the Atlantic seaboard, the date limit was to be advanced, taking in, for example, material printed up to 1850 in Illinois and Missouri, up to 1876 in the Pacific Coast states, and up to 1898 in most of the Rocky Mountain states.<sup>12</sup>

Three general types of work were to be undertaken: (1) preparation of a joint list of titles of books, pamphlets, and broadsides (within the date limits established) which have already been recorded in published bibliographies, catalogs of libraries, etc.; (2) inventory of books, pamphlets, and broadsides (printed within the date limits established) in those libraries throughout the country which were thought likely to contain enough material of importance to justify examination and listing of titles found; and (3) examination of a few files of the more important early newspapers for information regarding local printing and publishing activities, and particularly for advertisements, notices, or records of pamphlets or books locally printed.<sup>13</sup>

The work of the American imprints inventory, which has been carried out in the majority of states, has resulted in the publication of the following type of check lists:

HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. "American Imprints Inventory, Prepared by the Historical Records Survey, Division of Women's and Professional Projects, Works Progress Administration," Nos. 1—. Washington: Historical Records Survey, 1937—. (Mimeographed.)

Seventeen check lists have thus far been issued by 15 states; 13 are check lists of state imprints and 2 of city imprints, and 1 is a check

<sup>12</sup> Works Progress Administration, Historical Records Survey, *The American Imprints Inventory: A Preliminary Statement of Plan* (1937), p. 2.

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 4.

list of a special collection. They cover a wider scope than other trade bibliographies, since they include pamphlets and reports, society proceedings, privately printed addresses, and the like, and therefore constitute essential items in the record of American history;<sup>14</sup> and they are useful to scholars and historians in locating source materials in a wide range of subjects. Examples:

—. No. 1. "A Preliminary Check List of Missouri Imprints, 1808-1850." 1937. Pp. 225.

Records a total of 694 imprints, of which 117 appeared from 1808 through 1830 and 577 during the years 1831 to 1850, inclusive, arranged alphabetically by years. Location symbols are included for each item.

—. No. 4. "Check List of Chicago Antefire Imprints, 1851-1871." 1938. Pp. 364.

Contains 1,880 titles printed in Chicago in the years from 1851 to and including that part of 1871 before the fire. Distributed among 142 libraries and private collections; 1,320 of the titles included are to be found in libraries in the state of Illinois, 1,095 in Chicago libraries.

—. No. 10. "Check List of Kansas Imprints, 1854-1876." 1939. Pp. 387.

Contains 1,594 titles from holdings of 187 American libraries, 875 of which were known from single copies only, and 424 legislative bills also listed from single copies in the Kansas State Historical Society. Includes, besides a general index, a "List of Printers and Presses," arranged chronologically under place.

An important activity of the American imprints inventory has been carried on by that section devoted to inventorying the local newspaper press throughout the country. The need for such work was realized soon after the organization of the inventory. Existing inventories of issues were discovered to be very imperfect; indexes were incomplete and even nonexistent in many cases. An even more serious situation was met in the

rapid deterioration of newspapers published during the "wood-pulp" period.<sup>15</sup> This can be remedied by microfilming on a large scale—an activity which is being carried on by the survey at the present time.

To date, newspaper inventories have appeared in but six states. Publications are of two types: indexes to local news and check lists of newspapers. The indexes are usually in several volumes each; the check lists are in single volumes. The following is a typical example of the second type:

HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. UTAH. "Check List of Newspapers and Magazines Published in Ogden, Utah, Prepared by the Historical Records Survey." Ogden, Utah, 1938. Pp. 5. (Mimeographed.)

"... compiled by Hugh O'Neil, project editor, assisted by Wilbur Dodson, research worker. The information for some of the publications is incomplete and probably some publications have been omitted from the list...."—Preface. Lists 92 items in order of date of issue. The sequence of information for each is: name of paper; name of first editor; date of first issue; frequency of publication; date publication was discontinued.

#### AMERICAN PORTRAIT INVENTORIES

Carried out along with the inventories of newspapers, but as a separate activity of the H.R.S., the purpose of the American portrait inventory is "to compile research directories to all American portraits painted prior to 1860.... There are three specific phases: inventory of the portraits; bibliography of the portraitists.... and a bibliography of early American portrait painting."<sup>16</sup>

Under the technical supervision of Dr. George C. Groce, Jr., national consultant

<sup>14</sup> Luther H. Evans, "Sources for the Study of Local History," in *Inter-American Bibliographical and Library Association, Proceedings*, III (1940), 274.

<sup>16</sup> *Historical Records Survey, Massachusetts, "American Portraits, 1620-1825...."* (1939), I, iv.

<sup>14</sup> Douglas C. McMurtrie, "Further Progress in the Record of American Printing," in *American Library Association, Committee on Archives and Libraries, Archives and Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1940), p. 36.

to the inventory and a recognized authority on historical portraiture, there have been published, in four states, three check lists of portraits and one inventory of portraitists. In addition, two inventories in two other states have been approved for publication but as yet have not been issued. Examples of publications follow:

**HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. MASSACHUSETTS.** "American Portraits, 1620-1825, Found in Massachusetts. . . . Prepared by the Historical Records Survey. . . ." 1939. 2 vols. (Mimeographed.)

Contains, in all, 2,683 entries arranged alphabetically by name of person painted. Other information includes: "the name of the artist, basis of attribution, documentation, brief biography of the subject, physical description of the picture, history of its ownership, present location and accessibility to the public."—Preface. Volume II also contains: "Bibliography," "Special Name Index," "Index of Artists," and "Index of Locations." Very useful to illustrators, students of costume, museum exhibitors, librarians, antiquarians, and art collectors; and of general importance in the fields of history, painting, and taste.

**HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. NEW JERSEY.** "1440 Early American Portrait Artists (1633-1860). Preliminary Volume." 1940. Pp. 305. (Mimeographed.)

Contains 1,440 entries arranged alphabetically by artist. Information includes: name; type of artist; date of birth and death, and place, whenever possible; places where painting was done, with dates. Also contains a "Chronological Index" and a "Geographical Index," alphabetical by states and regions. Of value to anyone interested in the field of historical portraiture.

#### CHURCH ARCHIVES PUBLICATIONS

The inventory of church archives, undertaken soon after the inventory of county archives, and closely related to that unit in content and importance, has developed into a significant aspect of the work of the H.R.S. These inventories of church registers, membership records,

and financial journals of all denominations and of both races have become invaluable tools to economists, welfare workers, statisticians, and lawyers. They are particularly useful to investigators in graduate schools and have been found helpful by librarians of such institutions as the University of Notre Dame, the Pacific School for Religion, and the Union of Orthodox Congregations of America.<sup>17</sup>

The publications of the inventory fall into three main classes: (1) the early inventories, including all denominations, issued for cities or counties within each state; (2) recent inventories, which include the bulk of the publications issued to date, arranged by denominations; (3) directories of churches and religious organizations. Examples of the three classes follow:

**HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. OKLAHOMA.** "Inventory of the Church Archives of Oklahoma. . . . No. 7. Bryan County (Durant)." 1937. Pp. 24. (Mimeographed.)

Contains 98 items describing churches of the 12 denominations found in Bryan County. Information concerning each church includes: "name and location of church, name of denomination, date organized, date of any lapse, previous building, date of dedication of present building, rebuilding; special features . . . first settled clergyman . . . present pastor and address . . . dates and number of volumes of minute books, register books, and financial records of the church and its auxiliary organizations . . . published histories. . . ."—Preface.

**HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. MISSISSIPPI.** "Inventory of the Church Archives of Mississippi. . . . Protestant Episcopal Church, Diocese of Mississippi." 1940. Pp. 146. (Mimeographed.)

One hundred and twenty-eight churches described in chronological order of organization. "Each entry is divided into two or three paragraphs. The first paragraph gives, wherever possible, the organization history, the building history, the first settled clergyman, and the

<sup>17</sup> Scammell, *op. cit.*, p. 18.

present rector. The second paragraph gives bibliography pertaining exclusively to the particular church. The third paragraph is devoted to the records of the church" (p. iv). Contains also: detailed "Historical Sketch of Diocese . . ."; "Bibliography"; "Index to Churches, Chronological, by Name and Location and by Counties"; "Index of Clergymen. . . ."

HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. OREGON. "Directory of Churches and Religious Organizations, State of Oregon. . . ." 1940. Pp. 304. (Mimeographed.)

"Accounting for approximately 2000 churches in the State, it constitutes the most complete directory so far ever compiled of church organizations and church officials in Oregon."—Preface. Arranged alphabetically by denominations; churches listed alphabetically, first by county and then by town, under each. Contains also: "Clergy and Laity Index" and "Church and Organization Name Index."

#### GUIDES TO VITAL STATISTICS PUBLICATIONS

A more or less incidental project of the H.R.S., begun in states where the inventory of local archives was being carried out on a large scale, is the inventorying of vital statistics records. Publications of this type have been or are ready to be published in twenty-one of the states.

The publications are of two types: the guides to public statistics records, which include the majority of the publications thus far issued; and the reproduction of censuses of territories, of which only two have been issued to date. Examples:

HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. OKLAHOMA. "Guide to the Public Vital Statistics Records in Oklahoma. . . ." 1941. Pp. 85. (Mimeographed.)

Based on data compiled in 1940 at the request of the National Defense Commission and the United States Bureau of the Census. The primary arrangement of the guide is by type of vital statistics record—as birth, death, marriage, and divorce records; the secondary arrangement is by governmental unit. "The records entries show inclusive dates, nature of the record, number of volumes or containers, method of arrangement, indexing, title and address

of the custodian, and the cost and availability of certified copies."—Preface. Includes "Bibliography" and an "Index to Counties and Towns."

HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. ARIZONA. "The 1864 Census of the Territory of Arizona. . . ." 1938. Pp. 210. (Mimeographed.)

Is a copy of the original in the custody of the Secretary of State of Arizona. Was the first census of the Territory's inhabitants, and on the basis of its returns the territorial government was first organized.

Because of the demand by individuals for vital statistics records for establishing identity, for inheritance, for entrance to school, for proving the right to marry, for entering the Army, Navy, and the Civil Service, and for many other types of employment; and because of their vital import to the efficient functioning of the health programs of the federal and state governments, guides to the location and content of these records have become, increasingly, a necessity.

#### INVENTORIES OF FEDERAL ARCHIVES IN THE STATES

The inventory of federal archives in the states is the outcome of a nationwide survey of the archives of the federal government outside the District of Columbia. With the National Archives as a co-operating sponsor and Dr. Philip M. Hamer, of the National Archives, as its national director the survey was organized "to provide information of value to the National Archives, to other agencies of the United States government, and to students of history and economics."<sup>18</sup> The survey operated from January 1, 1936, to June 30, 1937, as a separate nationwide project of the W.P.A.; since that date it has been continued as a unit of the H.R.S.

<sup>18</sup> Stanley C. Arthur, "The Survey of Federal Archives and Its Value to Libraries in Louisiana," *Bulletin of the Louisiana Library Association*, I (1937), 2.



The general plan for the organization of the inventory is as follows:

Series I consists of reports on the administration of the Survey, acknowledgements, and general discussions of the location, condition, and content of federal archives in the states. Succeeding series contain the detailed information secured by workers of the Survey, in inventory form, a separate series number being assigned to each of the executive department (except the Department of State) and other major units of the Federal Government. Within each series No. 1 is a general introduction to the field organization and records of the governmental agency concerned; succeeding numbers contain the inventory proper, separate numbers being assigned to each state in alphabetical order. Thus, in each series, the inventory for Alabama is No. 2, that for Arizona No. 3, that for Arkansas No. 4, etc.<sup>19</sup>

Within each series some numbers are issued by the H.R.S., some by the National Archives Project, and some by the Survey of Federal Archives. The series numbers have been assigned as follows: II. The Federal Courts; III. Department of the Treasury; IV. Department of War; V. Department of Justice; VI. Post Office Department; VII. Department of the Navy; VIII. Department of the Interior; IX. Department of Agriculture; X. Department of Commerce; XI. Department of Labor; XII. Veterans' Administration; XIII. Federal Civil Works Administration; XIV. Emergency Relief Administrations; XV. Works Progress Administration; XVI. Farm Credit Administration; XVII. Miscellaneous Agencies.

For each local office, information regarding each series includes: title, inclusive dates, general description of informational content, description of the system of filing or indexing, a statement of frequency and purpose of use, form of

the record, linear footage, description of the containers, physical condition of the records, and location. Examples:

HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. "Inventory of the Federal Archives in the States. . . . Series II. The Federal Courts, No. 12. Illinois." 1939. Pp. 139. (Mimeographed.)

Inventories, by districts, the records of the U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals and the U.S. district courts; contains a "Chronological Index" of records beginning prior to 1900.

———. "Series X. The Department of Commerce, No. 14. Iowa." 1938. Pp. 29. (Mimeographed.)

Includes the Bureaus of Air, the Census, Fisheries, and Marine Inspection and Navigation.

———. "Series XV. The Works Progress Administration, No. 28. New Hampshire." 1939. Pp. 27. (Mimeographed.)

Arranged alphabetically by cities and by projects.

Of the fifteen miscellaneous publications issued, or about to be issued, by the inventory of federal archives in the various states, eleven consist of ship registers and enrolments of famous old seaport towns along the Atlantic Coast, especially those of Massachusetts and Rhode Island. Concerning the value of these registers to research, Sargent B. Child has written:

The registers of ships which have been maintained in the customs ports since 1789 contain valuable sources for the history of shipping and commerce. In addition, the information concerning owners' names, occupation, and residence provides data which is much sought after for purposes of genealogical research. They also contain information regarding the physical details of ship construction which is valuable to model building and persons interested in ship design.<sup>20</sup>

<sup>20</sup> Sargent B. Child, "Status and Plans for Completion of the Inventories of the Historical Records Survey," in American Library Association, Committee on Archives and Libraries, *Archives and Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1940), p. 19.

<sup>19</sup> Information card in University of Illinois card catalog.



A transcription of such a register is the following:

HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. RHODE ISLAND. "Ship Registers and Enrollments of Newport, R.I., 1790-1939." 1938-41. 2 vols. (Mimeographed.)

As for other miscellaneous publications, the titles of the following will explain their nature and usefulness: "Archives of the Spanish Government of West Florida, East Baton Rouge Acts," Parts I and II, "Translations and Transcripts . . ."; "History of the Custom House at New Orleans, Louisiana . . ."; "Directory of United States Government Agencies in Wisconsin. . . ."

#### INVENTORIES OF LOCAL ARCHIVES

As noted before, the inventory of local archives has held the central place in the H.R.S.; and it was mainly for the inventorying of state, county, and town and municipal archives that the H.R.S. was originally undertaken. In this work emphasis has been placed on the inventory of county archives, although in New England more attention has been given to the inventorying of town and municipal archives than to other local records.

*Inventories of county archives.*—The twofold purpose of the inventory of county archives, as stated by Dr. Evans, is: "(1) the preparation of a comprehensive report on the evolution of county government and records systems, and (2) the buttressing of the county archives inventories."<sup>21</sup> The inventory has been carried out on a nation-wide scale; hundreds of county inventories have already been published, while hundreds more are rapidly nearing completion.

The plan for publication is, briefly,

<sup>21</sup> John C. L. Andreassen, *The National Survey of County Archives* (Washington: Historical Records Survey, [1938]), p. 7.

that the counties within each state are assigned numbers according to their alphabetical arrangement within the state, and the inventory for each county is published under its number as soon as it is completed. Thus there are still lacunae in the series in most states.

The county inventories follow, in most cases, a uniform arrangement. Part I contains a brief historical sketch of the county, statements of the present governmental organization, charts of the terms of county officials, and essays on the housing, care, and accessibility of the records. Part II contains the numbered entries for the records of the county. Offices are arranged in logical sequence: the chief executive agencies are followed by judicial, office, legal, and service agencies. Under each office is given a detailed legal history and statement of duties and records required by law, followed by the list of records. The records are grouped under general subject headings, with occasional cross-references from the heading under one office to a similar heading under another.<sup>22</sup>

Special features include: the "Chronological Index," which lists records by title and entry number, arranged within decades by the beginning dates of the extant records; maps; charts; and bibliographies.

The inventories of county archives are especially useful to county officials, lawyers, businessmen, and historians engaged particularly in the study of local history. Examples:

HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. ALABAMA. "Inventory of the County Archives of Alabama. No. 46. Marengo County (Linden)." 1940. Pp. 205. (Mimeographed.)

<sup>22</sup> Luther H. Evans, "Next Steps in the Improvement of Local Archives," in American Library Association, Committee on Public Documents, *Public Documents, with Archives and Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1937), p. 279.

Contains 291 entries, under 36 chapter headings, in the "Records Section"; and, in addition, a "Chronological List of Titles of Local Acts Adopted by the State Legislature Relating to Marengo County," which composes over half of the volume.

**HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. ILLINOIS.** *Inventory of the County Archives of Illinois.* . . . No. 10. Champaign County (Urbana). 1938. Pp. 118.

Includes 444 entries under the various 33 chapters. Is one of the few printed inventories which were made possible by the sponsorship of historical societies within some of the states.

**HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. NEW YORK CITY.** "Inventory of the County Archives of New York City. . . . No. 1. Bronx County." 1940. Pp. 336. (Mimeographed.)

Contains 687 entries of records under 13 different offices.

*Inventories of state archives.*—Another important, although less extensive, activity of the inventory of local archives is the inventorying of state archives. To date, publications have been issued by only six states—California (Northern), Louisiana, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, and Utah—while inventories of two other states, Colorado and Michigan, have been approved for publication but not as yet issued.

No uniform numbering policy has been adopted for inventories of state archives. The numbering of the North Carolina publications is based upon function. All the state agencies are grouped into nine functional divisions, each of which is assigned a series number. Within each series a single agency is assigned a number based primarily upon its importance in relation to the other agencies included in the series.<sup>23</sup> Publications of other states are one-volume editions, as the following:

<sup>23</sup> Historical Records Survey, *Bibliography of Research Projects Reports; Check List of Historical Records Survey Publications*. Revised September 1, 1941. ("Professional and Service Projects Division, W.P.A. Technical Series, Research and Records Bibliography," No. 4.)

**HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. OHIO.** "Inventory of the State Archives of Ohio . . . Secretary of State." 1940. Pp. 71. (Mimeographed.)

Approximately half the volume is devoted to "A Brief History of the Office . . .," "Story of the Statehouse," "Housing, Care, and Accessibility of the Records"; the rest of the volume lists, by type of record, 103 annotated entries on the archives pertaining to the office of the Secretary of State. Includes a chronological and a subject index.

**HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. OKLAHOMA.** "A List of Records of the State of Oklahoma." 1938. Pp. 272. (Mimeographed.)

A tentative list issued for the convenience of state officials and for purposes of checking. Follows a subject arrangement: "Governor," "Secretary of State," "State Auditor," "Attorney General," etc., with divisions under each. Information includes: title, inclusive dates, quantity, and location of records; essays on the history and government of the state, and on each office; and a special "List of Records of Territory of Oklahoma," included as an appendix.

*Inventories of town and municipal archives.*—The inventory of town and municipal archives, the third activity under the inventory of local archives, was initiated as a nation-wide undertaking in January, 1936; as an independent unit of Federal Project No. 1, it has been carried out extensively throughout the New England states, especially in Maine, Massachusetts, and Vermont.

The principal object of the inventory, according to the Preface of *Town Government in Maine*, is:

. . . to publish inventories of all extant town and city records, and in this program the project has attempted to locate the records of each town office from its origin to the present, to explain gaps, and to indicate briefly how these records reflect the functions and interrelationships of the individual town offices.

Publications of the inventory are of two types: (1) explanatory volumes, few in number, which, like *Town Government in Maine*, are "designed to be both a

comprehensive handbook on the local government of that state and a compendium of the background material necessary for the comprehension of the record keeping systems of the towns";<sup>24</sup> and (2) the actual inventories of towns and municipalities, the volumes numbered according to the sequence of counties when listed alphabetically. Examples:

HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. MAINE. "Town Government in Maine. (Preliminary ed.) Designed for Use in Connection with Inventories of Town Archives." 1940. Pp. 206. (Mimeographed.)

Divided into two parts: Part A, "Municipal Government," contains essays on the three most common types of municipal government in Maine—towns, plantations, and village corporations; Part B, "Municipal Offices," contains essays, grouped under general headings by similarity of offices, on many of the offices which have been established by law to handle the affairs of the municipal units covered by Part A. The volume covers the more important laws relating to the more common offices. The Appendix contains 14 diagrams of local government. "Index of Maine Municipalities" is included.

HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. VERMONT. "Inventory of the Town, Village and City Archives of Vermont. . . . No. 1. Addison County, Vol. II. Town of Bridport." 1939. Pp. 60. (Mimeographed.)

Partial contents: "Historical Sketch"; "Diagram of Town Government"; "Housing, Care and Accessibility of the Records"; "Inventory," which lists, under 32 chapters, the records under the various town offices (town clerk, selectman, etc.).

—. "... No. 7. Towns of Grand Isle County: Alburgh, Grand Isle, Isle La Motte, North Hero, South Hero, Two Heroes, Albany Village." 1938. Pp. 250. (Mimeographed.)

The six sections under (D) "Inventories" follow the same arrangement as No. 1, Vol. II, for each of the six towns listed.

<sup>24</sup>"The Historical Records Survey," *American Archivist*, III (1940), 273.

#### MANUSCRIPTS PUBLICATIONS

Together with the inventories of local archives and the federal archives in the states, the inventories and guides to historical manuscript collections constitute the most extensive and valuable activities of the H.R.S. The general aim of this manuscript unit of the survey is the "preparation of guides, calendars, and other keys to historical materials of a semipublic or unofficial character,"<sup>25</sup> such materials constituting records of business houses, labor organizations, social groups, public libraries, historical societies, museums, papers of individuals or families, etc.

In general, the activity is designed to fulfil a twofold purpose:

... first, to assemble a body of data to be used in formulating a program of relief work in accumulating information on manuscript collections; and second, to assemble a body of data to be used by scholars in determining whether manuscript materials are available for research purposes.<sup>26</sup>

Under the supervision of Miss Margaret Sherburne Eliot, national editor of the manuscript survey, the work of the inventory has been devoted to the publication of three general series: (1) guides to depositories of manuscript collections, (2) guides to manuscript collections, and (3) calendars or inventories of single manuscript collections.

*Guides to depositories of manuscript collections in the United States.*—These are designed to be published in a series of fifty volumes, one for each state of the

<sup>25</sup>Margaret Sherburne Eliot, "Inventories and Guides to Historical Manuscript Collections," in American Library Association, Committee on Archives and Libraries, *Archives and Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1940), p. 26.

<sup>26</sup>Elinor Mullett Husseelman, Review of *Guide to Depositories of Manuscript Collections in the United States: One Hundred Sample Entries*, in *Library Quarterly*, X (1940), 126.

union (two for California) and the District of Columbia, regardless of the number of depositories. Material concerning each depository listed in the guides includes: location and director or librarian of the institution; history and purpose; housing facilities; fields of specialization; policies adopted in regard to purchasing; quantity of material held; arrangement; catalog and cross-reference information; dates of the material held; subjects dealt with; types of manuscripts held; conditions of access; and the number of staff.<sup>27</sup> Example:

**HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. PENNSYLVANIA.**

*Guide to Depositories of Manuscript Collections in Pennsylvania.* 1939. Pp. 126. (Pennsylvania, Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin [N.S.] No. 774; Pennsylvania Historical Commission, Bulletin No. 4.)

One of the few printed and bound *Guides*. The volume "represents a group of Pennsylvania institutions in whose libraries manuscripts are housed. It lists historical societies, public libraries, museums, and academic institutions, but is not intended to cover the vast number of manuscript collections in the archives of families and commercial enterprises, and in the hands of private collectors."—Preface. Is arranged alphabetically by city, and by library and society, etc., with a general index.

*Guides to manuscript collections.*—In the Preface to each of these guides similar, though more extensive, information to that given in the *Guides to Depositories* . . . is included for each collection being described, and following the prefatory essay are listed the manuscript holdings of the institution. Example:

**HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. NORTH CAROLINA.** "A Guide to the Manuscript Collections in the Duke University Library, Dur-

<sup>27</sup> Margaret Sherburne Eliot, "The Manuscript Program of the Historical Records Survey," in American Library Association, Committee on Public Documents, *Public Documents, with Archives and Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1938), p. 318.

ham, N.C." 1939. Pp. 165. (Mimeographed.)

Contains 1,091 annotated entries on the university's manuscript collection of 500,000 pieces, which originated in 1898. The manuscripts relate chiefly to southern history, especially for the period 1800-1865, for the states of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. Arranged alphabetically by names of papers and collections, and provided with a detailed index.

*Calendars and inventories of single manuscript collections.*—Individual items in especially significant manuscript collections are described by means of calendars and inventories, which contain greater detail than the other two types of publications. The form for listing the items in each collection follows suggestions adopted by the Anglo-American Historical Committee for the editing of modern historical documents and includes information such as: date written, author, place of writing, recipient, recipient's address, type of document, style of paper, number of pages, height and width, language, average number of words to a page, name of the collection, the depository name and address, and library call number.<sup>28</sup> The following are typical examples:

**HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.** "Calendar of the Letters and Documents of Peter Force and His Son William Q. Force on the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence in the Loomis Collection, Washington, D.C." 1940. Pp. 35. (Mimeographed.)

Describes 73 items, arranged by date, of the correspondence of Peter Force with George Bancroft, David Swain, Lyman Draper, and others and the editorial differences with Lord Mahon, relating to the "Mecklenburg Declaration." Includes an "Index to Proper Names in the Calendar." Of considerable interest to students of history and biographers.

<sup>28</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 323-24.

—. "Calendar of Alexander Graham Bell Correspondence in the Volta Bureau, Washington, D.C." 1940. Pp. 41. (Mimeographed.)

Contains 236 entries, arranged by date, concerning letters written by Bell to associates in the Volta Bureau and others. The bureau was established by Bell "to provide a clearing house for the accumulation and dissemination of information pertaining to the deaf, to assist in ascertaining the causes of deafness, to alleviate the condition of those whose hearing science could not restore, and to arrange helpful contacts between parents and the teachers of deaf children."—Preface.

#### MICROFILMS

Mention has already been made of the need for microfilming newspapers, especially those published since the beginning of the "pulp era" of American journalism. Sargent B. Child has stated that the ideal to be reached would consist of the microfilming of all complete files of newspapers of historical or social value and, specifically, of certain very valuable newspapers published from 1865 through 1910.<sup>29</sup> However, the use of microphotography has, thus far, been restricted by the H.R.S. to other materials, for which it has been used extensively in the District of Columbia, in Indiana, and in New Jersey.<sup>30</sup>

In the District of Columbia, microfilm was used to reproduce 250,000 cards from the catalogs of the Department of Agriculture, the Naval Records Library, the Army War College, the Geological Survey, the Bureau of Mines, the Army Air Corps, and the Army Industrial College.

The work in Indiana has consisted of the microfilming of records in sixteen different counties. To date, 65 rolls have

been filmed, reproducing records dating from 1790 to 1907, and including the following types: vital statistics, commissioners' records, deed records, alien records, minute books, probate court records, records of the court of common pleas, order books of the circuit court, estray books, treasurers' records. These are now deposited at the Indiana State Library, at Indianapolis. Following is a sample roll:

Scott County—Roll 1: Deed record, (A) 1819-1827, (B) 1826-1828; Land entry book; Commissioners record, (A) 1820-1840, (B) 1841-1851, Vol. 1. 1851-1865.

The New Jersey H.R.S. has filmed a considerable block of early material showing the location of the original records and has conducted some of the filming of Pennsylvania records. The New York City H.R.S. has filmed Loyalist papers in the New York Public Library and also subject cards on United States history from the card catalog of the same library.

#### MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS

The miscellaneous publications of the H.R.S. include some of the most interesting, as well as most useful, publications issued by the survey. Among them are indexes, check lists, transcriptions of parish and county records, abstracts and compilations of laws, directories, histories, guides to historic markers, and cemetery readings. Typical of these publications are the following:

#### HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. LOUISIANA.

"Transcriptions of Parish Records of Louisiana. . . . No. 26. Jefferson parish (Gretna). Series I. Police Jury Minutes. Vol. I. 1834-1843." 1939. Pp. 237. (Mimeographed.)

The first of 13 proposed volumes under this series on Jefferson parish. It is also the "first volume of governing body minutes to be pub-

<sup>29</sup> Child, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

<sup>30</sup> "The Microfilm Program of the Historical Records Survey," *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, I (1938), 59-62.



lished under Federal Historical Records Survey auspices in the United States."—Foreword. Is a word-for-word, page-for-page transcription of the original documents, with marginal notes; contains a "Subject Index" and a "Chronological List of Ordinances. . . ." Of interest and value to the student of local history, law, and government.

#### HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. MINNESOTA.

"Guide to Historic Markers Erected by the State Highway Department Cooperating with the Minnesota Historical Society." 1940. Pp. 39. (Mimeographed.)

Contains descriptions of 112 historic markers classified by six geographic areas. Entries are divided into three parts: (1) title of marker as it appears on the marker, (2) title and number of the highway and location of the marker in relation to prominent landmarks, (3) transcript of the marker inscription. Includes: "Index of Markers on Trunk and U.S. Highways" and "County Index," as well as the "General Index."

#### HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. MISSISSIPPI.

"Sargent's Code; a Collection of the Original Laws of the Mississippi Territory Enacted 1799-1800 by Governor Winthrop Sargent and the Territorial Judges." 1939. Pp. 168. (Mimeographed.)

Forty-six laws, listed by date of enactment, transcribed from the original manuscript laws, deposited in the State Department of Archives and History, Jackson, Mississippi. "None except the first 25 of the laws as they appear in this edition were contained in the edition published by Andrew Marschalk at Natchez in 1799."—Introduction.

#### HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY. WEST VIRGINIA.

"Cemetery Readings in West Virginia. . . . Lincoln and Paw Paw Magisterial Districts of Marion County." 1939. Pp. 320. (Mimeographed.)

Part I, "Descriptions of Cemeteries," contains 131 cemeteries alphabetically arranged under two districts. The name and location are given in the title line, followed by a brief description of the cemetery. Part II, "Stone Readings," is arranged alphabetically by family names under each cemetery, which, by number, is keyed to the description of the cemetery in Part I. Only the actual information found on the stones is given. "Name Index" lists family names only, with indications to each page on which this name appears.

#### SUMMARY: VALUE OF THE SURVEY

The preceding description of the various activities and the publications of the H.R.S. should serve to substantiate the remark made by Dr. Solon J. Buck, director of the National Archives, who referred to it as "the major agency in the United States for the production of comprehensive historical bibliographies on a nation wide scale."<sup>31</sup>

Taken as a whole, the H.R.S. publications have served, in varying capacities, all classes and types of research workers, as well as government officials and local administrators. Administrators of local archives have been made aware of the inadequateness of present methods of housing their records and have become cognizant of the legal and historical importance not only of current but of older publications and documents; the arrangement and listing of documents has enabled judges to refer more freely to previous cases and to work out new principles of law; government officials have found easier access to information necessary for social security records, old age pensions, and naturalization proceedings; and the F.B.I. has more readily secured data about criminal activities. Genealogists, through the arrangement of wills, deeds, and vital statistics records, are offered important facts not found in other source materials; research workers in political science, economists interested in tax records and proceedings of bankruptcies, sociologists studying relief problems, juvenile delinquency, and prison reform are all assisted by the varied publications issued by the survey. Above all, every activity of the survey is of interest to the historian, for whom the wealth of source material presented will mean "the re-writing of much of our history and the

<sup>31</sup> Scamell, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

assembling of a far more accurate account of the facts than has been possible up to this time."<sup>32</sup>

The real importance of the H.R.S. and the end which it hopes to attain are well stated by Dr. Luther H. Evans, the survey's organizer and first national supervisor:

Our inventories thus become a springboard into the mass of documents which contain the

real history of the community. With the assistance and cooperation of the libraries, it will be possible to lift from oblivion the greatest single resource in the field of local research, whether it be purely historical or governmental, economic, or cultural, and bring it into the library system of the nation. By building on our inventories . . . we shall be able to make available to the nation as a whole, as well as to the local researcher, the vast historical resources of local archives.<sup>33</sup>

<sup>32</sup> Kellar, *op. cit.*, p. 52.

<sup>33</sup> Evans, "Next Steps in the Improvement of Local Archives," *op. cit.*, pp. 284-85.

## THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

**SIDNEY DITZION:** for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, IX (1939), 204. The report of the survey of serials procedures on which Mr. Ditzion was working in 1939 appeared in mimeographed form in June, 1939, under the joint authorship of Mr. Ditzion and Fred B. Rothman, and a summary was published under the title "Prevailing Practices in Handling Serials" (*College and Research Libraries*, I [March, 1940], 165-69). Two articles by Mr. Ditzion were published in the *Library Quarterly* in 1940 (X, 192-219; 545-77), and in 1942 he was co-author with Harrison W. Craver of a mimeographed "Report of a Survey of the St. Louis Mercantile Library for the St. Louis Mercantile Library Association . . . on Behalf of the A.L.A."

**J. C. M. HANSON:** for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, IV (1934), 112-14 and 127-30, and XII (1942), 764.

**ROBERT WILSON KIDDER** was born May 15, 1914, at Tilton, New Hampshire. He attended the University of New Hampshire, receiving his B.A. in 1938 and his M.A. in English in 1939. In August, 1941, he received the B.S. in L.S. degree from the University of Illinois Library School, where he spent the next ten months in graduate study. Mr. Kidder also held the position of assistant in the loan department of the University of Illinois Library during 1941-42. In June, 1942, he was inducted into the Army and is now a corporal in the Second Signal Service Branch, Washington, D.C. Previous published works include several short stories.

**R. R. RENNE** was born December 12, 1905, in Greenwich, New Jersey. He was graduated

from Rutgers University in 1927 and received his M.S. (1928) and Ph.D. (1930) from the University of Wisconsin. Since 1930 he has been a member of the staff of the departments of agricultural economics and of economics and sociology at Montana State College, becoming the head of the latter department in 1938 and of the former in 1939. During the winter quarter, 1940, he was visiting professor of economics at the University of Chicago and from September 1941, to February, 1942, was acting professor in the department of agricultural economics and farm management at Cornell University. Since July 1, 1942, he has been state price officer in charge of the Price Division, Office of Price Administration, Helena, Montana. He has served as consultant to the National Resources Planning Board and as lecturer for the United States Bureau of Education and the United States Department of Agriculture from time to time during the last five years.

Mr. Renne is the author of seventeen Montana Agricultural Experiment Station bulletins on county organization, state property taxes, and related subjects; of numerous articles in professional journals; and of two books: *The Tariff on Dairy Products* (Freeport, Ill.: Rawleigh Foundation, 1933) and, with J. W. Hoffmann, *The Montana Citizen* (Helena: State Publishing Co., 1937; rev. ed., 1940). He has recently completed the manuscript for a general textbook on land economics to be published by Harper and Brothers, probably in the spring of 1943.

**FREMONT RIDER:** for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, VI (1936), 419, and VIII (1938), 415.

## THE COVER DESIGN

JEAN CRESPIN was born in Arras. He went to Paris to study law and built up a large legal practice. His professional career, however, was brought to a close when he embraced the reformed religion and in 1545 was compelled to flee, first to Strassburg, then to Geneva. On his flight he was accompanied by the scholar, Theodore de Bèze, who later became Calvin's chief assistant.

About 1551, Crespin set up a printing shop, where he issued the classics as well as books written in support of Calvinism. His productions were noted both for beauty and for accuracy.

Crespin was a learned and versatile man of letters as well as a printer. He translated from the Latin into French verse Thomas Kirchmayer's satire, *Le Marchant converti*. He edited Justinian's *Institutiones*. On evidence of varying value, commentaries on a number of classical authors printed by his successor have been attributed to him. He assisted Robert Constantine in the compilation of his *Lexicon graecolatinum*. But the most important of his literary works was *Le Livre des martyrs*, first published in 1554 and republished in editions enlarged first by Crespin and afterward by others. This

work emphasized the martyrdom of those who died for the reformed religion. Translated into a number of languages, it had a wide influence.

For the English reformers fleeing the Marian

persecution Crespin printed a number of works. The most important of these was the Geneva Bible of 1568, the first English Bible to be printed in roman letter or to be divided into verses.

Crespin died in 1572. His son-in-law, Eustache Vignon, succeeded to his business.

Crespin used a number of marks all of the same design—reminiscent of that of Aldus. One of these is reproduced on the cover: Two hands from the clouds support an anchor surmounted by a brazen serpent; below are two mermen and a dolphin. The anchor was the symbol of hope, and the brazen serpent

was recognized as a type of Christ (cf. John 3:14). Vignon, therefore, possibly following his father-in-law, described his mark as "the anchor of Christ."

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE  
LIBRARY



## REVIEWS

*A History of Historical Writing*, Vol. I: *From the Earliest Times to the End of the Seventeenth Century*; Vol. II: *The Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries*. By JAMES WESTFALL THOMPSON with the collaboration of BERNARD J. HOLM. New York: Macmillan Co., 1942. Pp. xvi+676; ix+674. \$14.

James Westfall Thompson was America's most productive medievalist and one of our most enthusiastic expounders of medieval culture. He was a great teacher and a colorful and outspoken personality. Most of his academic career was spent at the University of Chicago, but an unusually attractive chair at the University of California attracted him thither in 1932. At Berkeley, his enthusiasm for his adopted university and state almost outran that which he felt for medieval culture. While he was never a propagandist for the "New History" in the abstract, he was an able practitioner of its precepts, for his interests in medieval history were broad, indeed—from institutions to philology.

Professor Thompson was the author of many articles and monographs and of a number of large systematic works on medieval history. It is probable that no other medievalist, in America or elsewhere, did so much to synthesize contemporary scholarship and knowledge in the field of medieval history. His work on *Feudal Germany* remains the only important treatment of that neglected subject in English. His two-volume work on *The Middle Ages* is the most comprehensive survey of medieval history and culture produced by any American. Even more valuable and unique were his *Economic and Social History of the Middle Ages* and his *Economic and Social History of Europe in the Later Middle Ages*, which drew profusely on the best European scholarship and filled a great gap in accessible historical materials. He also wrote a brief college manual on medieval history and contributed the medieval section to a general history of civilization.

Professor Thompson had a prodigious memory and once told a friend that he dictated the material on the Middle Ages for the history-of-civilization text without consulting a book or

a note. This erudition carried its drawbacks, however, for it led to overconfidence and to a reluctance to seek criticism which permitted what were, at times, incredible "slips" to be sprinkled through his works. These were pounced upon by esoteric scholars and gleefully exploited by the envious to cast undeserved doubts on his scholarship and learning as a whole.

For nearly forty years Professor Thompson taught a course on historiography and the history of historical writing, and these two impressive volumes may be regarded as the end-product of his lectures, seminars, and researches in this field. They are the most comprehensive work in this field ever executed by a single author, in any language. The book was essentially completed at the time of Professor Thompson's death in September, 1941, and was edited and seen through the press by his student and collaborator, Professor Bernard J. Holm, who also contributed the bulk of a number of chapters in the second volume.

These volumes are a work of erudition and specialism, to be sure, but they are neither dry nor dull. Indeed, they are absorbing reading to one interested in, and reasonably familiar with, the field. Personal details are introduced along with the bibliographic survey and appraisal, and both are enlivened by Professor Thompson's independent judgments and cryptic comments. Even the summaries of Muslim and Byzantine historical writing escape being mere bibliographic annotations, which is no mean feat.

The first 120 pages of the work deal with the historians of antiquity, and the treatment provides a good summary. But there is nothing new or striking about the material and, as a survey of ancient historical writing, it is inferior to Professor Shotwell's presentation. The book really gets under way with the historical writing of the Middle Ages, to which some 350 pages are devoted. This is, as one might readily suspect, the most detailed, independent, and competent portion of the two volumes. It gives, for the first time, a comprehensive survey of medieval historiography in the English language,



and, as far as the reviewer is aware, it is the best summary in any language. The old three-volume "Early Chroniclers of Europe" series was useful, but it is now archaic and it did not include a systematic treatment of medieval historians in Germany. Professor Thompson covers not only the writings of the historians of Latin Europe, but those of the Muslim and Byzantine historians as well.

This superb review and assessment of medieval historiography is followed by a competent account of the historical writing of the Renaissance, Reformation, and Counter-reformation. Then comes a survey of the rise of modern historical scholarship, from the erudite editors like Mabillon to the great architects of modern historical prose, such as Leopold von Ranke, his school, students, and followers. This is supplemented by an account of French and English historical scholarship in the nineteenth century, including an original chapter on Germanic historians of England. Not a great deal is added to the information available in Gooch, save for a better treatment of French historians, but there are fresh comments and appraisals.

The most original, unique, and valuable portion of the treatment of modern historical writing is a whole book, approximately one hundred pages, on institutional historians, including economic and social history and the impact of modern science on historical writing. Most of this material is the work of Professor Holm. But there is little doubt that he was guided in part by Professor Thompson's lectures on these historians. This section of the book is especially valuable, not only on account of its intrinsic excellence, but also because it is not generally available elsewhere in systematic and condensed form.

The book winds up with a portrayal of the contemporary historical scholarship which has enabled us to reconstruct our knowledge of the history of the ancient Near East, of modern work in classical and Byzantine history, of modern church history, and of the writings of historical scholars in the lesser countries of Europe.

All in all, these volumes constitute a work of great erudition. If Professor Thompson seems rather partial to Germanic scholarship and gives the fullest treatment to German historians, he does not hesitate to criticize the illiberalism of some of them. There is no eulogy of Prussianism or totalitarianism, implicit or explicit, in these pages.

The outstanding contributions of the book

are, first of all, its comprehensive and systematic survey of all Western historical writing, save for the works of living historians; second, its authoritative and rich treatment of medieval historical writing; and, third, the excellent survey of the rise of institutional historiography. The account of modern historical scholarship is very competent, but this phase of the subject has been dealt with already in reliable and easily accessible works in English.

While specialists will quarrel with many of Professor Thompson's judgments on particular historians, even though his verdict may be the sounder in the majority of cases, the great defect of the book, in the light of its title, is the neglect of contemporary historical writing, especially intellectual, social, and cultural history—the "New History"—and of nearly all American historical writing, including even that of the great literary historians, Bancroft, Parkman, Prescott, and Motley. The failure to cover American historiography is explained and excused on the ground that there are already good books on the subject, but the same can be said of modern European historiography.

This neglect of the "New History," save in its earlier institutional aspects, is a lamentable defect and one to be wondered at, in view of Professor Thompson's own obvious membership in this school of historians. It cannot be explained wholly on the ground that the authors deliberately eliminated all living historians from their survey. James Harvey Robinson died in 1936, but his name does not even appear in the Index to the volumes. The decision to exclude living historians might be understood in a "Rotarian" member of the guild, full of professional urbanity and delicacy, but hardly in a man of Professor Thompson's candor and courage. To exclude living writers is a very serious defect in any branch of social science, for much of the best work done in social science, including history, has been produced by men still living. It is a worse defect than any such arbitrary decision in a history of natural science; yet imagine a history of physics which ignored Einstein and Max Planck! As an account of the whole history of historical writing, Professor Thompson's volumes need to be supplemented by Michael Kraus's *A History of American History* and by the reviewer's *New History and the Social Studies*.

Finally, while the reviewer is no servile follower of Marxian historiography, this is an important item in modern historical writing. But

the appraisal of Marx is here thrown into a few paragraphs sandwiched in, believe it or not, between pages on Balkan and eastern European historical writing. Not a few specialists would regard Marx as the leading institutional historian who has yet lived, when both his own works and his influence are jointly considered.

On the whole, however, this is a monumental piece of work in the true sense of that hackneyed term. It is the crowning effort of a lifetime of scholarly labors and devotion. It carries not only the earmarks of great learning but the indubitable stamp of a dynamic and forceful personality. It is a fitting termination of a distinguished historical career.

HARRY ELMER BARNES

Cooperstown, New York

*Some Historians of Modern Europe.* Edited by  
BERNADOTTE E. SCHMITT. ("A Fiftieth Anniversary Publication.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. Pp. ix+533. \$5.00.

American students of history and librarians serving research institutions are familiar, as a rule, with the great European historians of the nineteenth century. But their acquaintance with contemporary English, French, Italian, or German historians (not to mention Russian or other Slavic scholars) tends to be less intimate. Therefore, Professor Bernadotte E. Schmitt, distinguished member of the history department of the University of Chicago, deserves praise for his present undertaking. His idea was to give the American learned public biographical essays devoted to those outstanding historians of modern Europe whose work has been done in the last two generations and who, therefore, are not dealt with in Eduard Fueter's and G. P. Gooch's unrivaled works on historiography. Schmitt's collection is an outgrowth of the course on the historiography and bibliography of modern Europe that he offers to graduate students at the University of Chicago. It is interesting to note that Thompson's monumental *History of Historical Writing* developed out of the same course at Chicago, even though it was completed in California. The two works supplement each other unusually well; there is little duplication. Together they are a tribute to the spirit and to the world-wide understanding of the Chicago historical school.

The twenty-two essays that form the volume under review have been written by former graduate students of this school. Schmitt confined himself to offering some general suggestions to the contributors as to what was wanted and refrained from committing the fault of so many editors, who try to impose their will on their unfortunate collaborators. As a rule the essays are based on careful research and are rather well written, even though at times a certain lack of the "personal touch" makes itself felt. Considering the difficulties involved in gathering the necessary information, the number of factual (and printing) errors is fairly small. Only a few slips, painful to a reader trained in German universities, may be noted here. Two contributors make the same erroneous statement (pp. 104, 424) that Friedrich Althoff was Prussian Minister of Education, which he was not, although he would have been worthier of the job than many of the men under whom he worked. Krause, Friedberg, and LSENSKY (p. 109) were not members of the Reichstag. There were neither margraves of Brandenburg nor kings of Prussia but only prince-electors of Brandenburg in the seventeenth century (p. 432). Also, some names have been misspelled.

The real criticism of the volume will not rest on these details but rather on the selection of the historians for inclusion. The editor says that "in the case of several historians who would naturally be included in such a volume, I could unfortunately find no one willing to write on them." This certainly is an extenuating circumstance. Nevertheless, it seems regrettable that more French historians were chosen than either English or German, although in the twentieth century France has decidedly not been the leading country in the field of historiography. As to the English, the lack of essays on men like H. A. L. Fisher, G. P. Gooch (whose charming autobiography in the German series, "Geschichtswissenschaft der Gegenwart in Selbstdarstellungen," may fill the gap somehow), and G. M. Trevelyan is difficult to understand, since they undoubtedly are among the foremost historians of our age. Equally hard to bear is the exclusion of their two most prominent contemporary German colleagues, Friedrich Meinecke, pioneer in the field of the history of ideas, and Hermann Oncken, leader among the political historians and a generation ago a guest professor at the University of Chicago itself. It is gratifying to see some of Russia's

great scholars, like Milyukov and Pokrovsky, included; but why has no Polish or Czech historian (like Pekaf) been found worthy of admission to this hall of fame? Finally, it might be argued that an arrangement of the biographies by country would have had great advantages over an alphabetical order of names.

In spite of such shortcomings, which may be hard to avoid in a work of this kind, the volume is heartily recommended for research and college libraries that pay due attention to modern European history.

FELIX E. HIRSCH

*Bard College*

*A Study of War.* By QUINCY WRIGHT. 2 vols. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. Pp. xxiii+687; xvii+874. \$15.

This is a mountainous work: if ever a book deserved to be called "monumental" both because of its physical properties and because of the weighty and judicious quality of its conclusions, this is it. The book is a product of co-operative scholarship over a period of years at the University of Chicago: and the results of that scholarship are now synthesized by Professor Wright, who has a talent for synthesis. I shall not say that I have read every paragraph of it, down to the last footnote of the last table of the last appendix. But I have spent more time reading it than I have spent on any book since I read Carl Sandburg's four volumes on Lincoln's war years. I like the sheer scope and ambition of the job: in an era of specialization and of petty aims there is something healthy about undertaking and carrying through so huge a project.

I don't remember being so impressed by sheer learning and synthesis in the social sciences since I had a chance at close hand to watch Alvin Johnson and his colleagues in the making of the *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, whose articles Wright cites repeatedly. Since then, of course, Arnold Toynbee and Pitirim Sorokin have written their vast works on the theory of history, from which Wright draws heavily and a bit uncritically; and Pareto's vast treatise on sociology has been translated and published: yet all three are thesis works, ransacking knowledge in order to drive home a particular conception. That is not true of Wright, who leans perhaps too much in the direction of weighing other men's theories rather than presenting his own. But the learning is there none-

theless. He has swallowed whole libraries and has gone at least part of the way toward digesting them. His work is, therefore, not only a librarian's paradise: it is also, what is much more to the point, a librarian's imperative. If I were a librarian and had to thread my way among the many inquiries about writings on war and peace and international law and international organization, I should keep my patience always freshly furbished and the book at my elbow. It would be for me what Vergil was for Dante: a guide through Hell.

The clearest single effect that the book will have on the reader is to purge him of his dogmatism about the origin, nature, and control of war. It is difficult to emerge from it and still hold a monistic view about the function, drives, techniques, or legal theories of war. I name these because they are the principal areas into which Wright divides his discussion. On one thing he is very clear—that the old chestnut about war being an inevitable part of human nature had better be abandoned to the flames of scholarly study, which will make short shrift of it. "War," says Wright, "is a function of group mores rather than of human instinct." It is, of course, fed by deep psychic drives—for food, sex, territory, adventure, self-preservation, domination. But these drives, like others in human life, can be controlled by social organization and rechanneled in other directions. There are, as Wright points out, many instances of primitive tribes whose history has been almost wholly unwarlike.

It is a difficult book to sum up—largely, perhaps, because its principal value lies in its explorations rather than in its conclusions, which are guarded and relativistic. As I look into my memory for the residue that the reading of the book has left in my mind, I put it somewhat as follows: War is a fearfully complex institution, about which practically any generalization is dangerous. Nevertheless, it is subject to study by the social disciplines. It is rooted in the political struggle for power, the economic struggle for resources and for population sustenance, the national rivalries of ideas and cultural modes. It results in, and is intensified by, the divergencies of legal systems, the pride of sovereignty, the lack of a genuine structure of international law and organization. While it is not an inevitable part of human nature, it has been a persistent strain in human history. In fact, many of the changes by which we measure social advance—improvements in technology, in eco-

conomic and political organization, in control over nature, in the deepening of cultural consciousness—have had the effect of intensifying war and its destructiveness. While fluctuations in the intensity of war can be measured statistically, they cannot be explained—as the whole institution of war cannot be understood—except by reference to the deeper rhythms within the historic cycles of civilizations. It is never wholly clear whether Wright accepts or rejects the Spengler-Toynbee-Sorokin type of historical theory. At times he seems to, and the basic unit of his discussion is the “civilization.” At other times he speaks in terms of the concept of a progression in humanity as a whole that goes beyond particular civilizations. While, therefore, he sometimes seems to view war as an inherent part of the historic process by which civilizations are born and grow and perish, he ends with the more optimistic affirmation that we can in this respect mold our own laws for our civilization and create a “warless world.”

In short, despite his two huge volumes Wright has not reached any certitudes about war—as who has or can? There are many phases of his thinking with which other scholars will quarrel. Thus I for one find his definition of war (“a simultaneous conflict of armed forces, popular feelings, jural dogmas, and national cultures so nearly equal as to lead to an extreme intensification of each”) clumsy and a bit pedantic. I prefer to see war as merely the use of ultimate means in social conflict. We shall never succeed in resolving social conflict wholly: but we can take steps to minimize its intensity and to control and penalize the use of the ultimate means of violence and death.

This leads to another criticism. Wright makes the valid observation that “peace cannot be approached directly but is a by-product of a satisfactory organization of the world.” But this means also that it must be a by-product of a satisfactory organization, economically and socially, within nations. In the light of that, I cannot understand his acid remarks about socialism. He calls it “feudal,” because “the spirit of socialism is the dominance of group welfare over individual interests.” Yet it is exactly that dominance that he argues for in world organization: he wishes to see the development of symbols which play down the nation and play up some form of world state; he is all for subordinating the sovereignty of the nation to a world organization but not for subordinating individual interests to group welfare. I don’t believe

you can have a double standard in these matters. The ethos that prevails within nations will be the ethos that prevails between nations. If individualism is allowed to continue anarchic within nations (as it may well do despite the “reformed capitalism” of Robbins, Knight, Simons, and Staley, the economists whom Wright seems to lean on), then the form of individualism known as nationalism will continue anarchic as between nations.

This tendency to make the best of several contradictory worlds crops up in the book every now and then. But the prevailing note is not that of confusion but that of judiciousness and fairness. He takes account of all the points of view in the literature and with a sweet reasonableness indicates what is sound and unsound about each. It is a striking fact that the summary he gives of the characteristics of our modern civilization—“humanism, liberalism, pragmatism, relativism”—is also a good summary of the author’s own attitudes. Despite his learning and his tremendous effort of detachment he cannot help being the child of his own era.

With respect to a program of action in the control of war, I agree wholly with the general direction of Wright’s thinking. He does not spin world constitutions out of his own innards; neither does he fall for the pessimism of writers like Spykman who see no alternative in the future to the bloody balance-of-power principle in the world politics of the past. Wright prefers to start from where we are—with the United Nations organization—and project and extend it into the future, adding supranational sanctions against aggression and building up habits of thinking, but without denying or destroying the nation as a cultural unit.

A final word about the writing. There are flashes of intuition and of phrase, but they tend to be buried by all the impedimenta of modern scholarship. The sentences tend to be cumbersome, the concepts are fearfully those that the lay reader associates with sociologists. What sticks in your craw most is the elaborate apparatus that makes the book read like a formal treatise for a Ph.D. degree. Wright attacks his objectives only after elaborate preliminary preparations, never by the forced march and the sudden sortie. Nevertheless (or perhaps because of this), there are delightful byways and almost hidden recesses in the book to which the reader will want to come again and again. Not only is war itself discussed, but everything that has even a remote relation to war. There are grand

essays on the theory of history, on animal societies, on life among primitive peoples, on symbols, motives, geography, population, diplomacy. Even the footnotes often make absorbing reading. The author has poured into these volumes the resources of a wise and rich mind—and that is always the ultimate test of a book.

MAX LERNER

Williams College  
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*Teacher Education in a Democracy at War.* By EDWARD S. EVENDEN. Washington: American Council on Education, 1942. Pp. vii + 118. \$0.75.

The scope of this study is broader than its title, for it presents a picture of public education as it is and as it should be in a democracy at war, as well as suggestions for needed changes in the education of teachers. With this comprehensive background the book is as useful for in-service education of teachers as for the training of prospective candidates.

Mr. Evenden has some valuable chapters on lessons which should have been learned from World War I and from England's experiences, both then and now—lower standards for teaching positions because of teacher shortage, no educational effort to plan for a post-war world, and the use of the schools by numerous agencies to forward war work without regard for the educational values to the pupils involved. His discussion of England's ability to profit by her previous mistakes is heartening. England, too, lowered teacher standards, neglected to use the schools as a means of education for the problems involved in planning for peace and for post-war living, and made other mistakes similar to ours. During this war, however, only temporary appointments are given to unqualified teachers; children are being used for immediate war projects only when their health and their total education will not suffer. Serious attention is being paid to future peacetime activities. In general, there is a new attitude toward the role of education and the teacher in England.

In our own country the shortage of teachers and prospective teachers is acute, as before, particularly in rural areas. Programs for their training are being dangerously accelerated. While there is some evidence of the use of temporary certificates for unqualified persons, there is a question as to whether the practice will be

universal, under stiffer pressure. The valuable point is brought out here, as it is frequently throughout the book, that public attitudes are partly responsible for desirable and undesirable conditions in education and that "war pressure for man power and funds is in a fair way to continue and intensify the handicap that the public's apathy, tax-sensitiveness, or lack of information has put upon the schools."

The chapter "Implications of War for Teacher Education" introduces several themes which are repeated later as essential doctrines for school systems, institutions preparing teachers for their profession, and for the general public. They are worth noting:

Any changes which are made in educational procedures or offerings should be scrutinized for long-term educational values.

Teachers should believe in, practice and be able to teach democratic ideals and procedures. These require a background of desirable social habits, attitudes and understandings.

The contribution of the schools and school personnel to the preparation for a better world after the war must be continuously stressed.

The possible contributions of the schools to morale building must not be minimized. Besides the obvious, direct methods of encouraging interest and pride in the principles which the nation is defending, teachers who see children as individuals can do much to stabilize those who are beset by emotional strains and other problems incidental to the war.

The author spends some time discussing the attitudes of the general public, for he realizes that a school program should not be "sold" to its patrons by the school authorities but should be built in co-operation with the community as a whole. He puts a heavy responsibility on the public at large for the kind of schools that exist and for implementing the education that prospective and in-service teachers should have. This makes the book an important one for parents as well as for educators.

A chapter describing the gains made for education since 1919 accents the need for retaining this progress during war as well as in peacetime. Such advances as the following are discussed: an upward trend in standards of preparation of teachers; the development of new ways of helping in-service teachers, such as summer workshops; increased high-school enrolment; more money spent for education; decreased teacher-turnover; higher salaries for teachers; more teachers under tenure and protected by pensions on retirement.



This is a particularly important book for teachers-in-service at this time as an intelligent approach to their wartime responsibilities, both professional and personal. It is an essential book for administrators and faculties of institutions engaged in the education of prospective teachers.

Mr. Evenden is a professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, and is chairman of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. His experience with the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, 1930-33, gives his current presentation additional authority.

ELIZABETH SCRIPTURE

*Supervisor of Libraries  
Denver Public Schools*

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*The Use of the Library by Student Teachers: Some Factors Related to the Use of the Library by Student Teachers in Thirty-one Colleges in the Area of the North Central Association.* By JOHN HERROLD LANCASTER. ("Columbia University Contributions to Education," No. 849.) New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. x+138. \$1.85.

A vital problem to all those interested in the education of American youth is that of improving the preparation of teachers. One aspect of this problem is training in the use of printed materials and libraries. The increased dependence upon library resources evident in current educational trends has drawn attention to the fact that most elementary, secondary, and college teachers are inadequately trained to use these resources intelligently. To furnish a basis for improving this deficiency at the secondary level, Lancaster has surveyed some factors related to the use of the library by student teachers. His investigation involved student teachers in thirty-one institutions of higher education in the Middle West, of which twenty-three were universities or colleges and eight were teachers colleges. Although these thirty-one institutions are "in the area of the North Central Association," only twenty-nine of them are accredited by this association; eleven are accredited by the American Association of Teachers Colleges; fourteen by the Association of American Universities; and none is accredited by all three agencies. The number of student teachers enrolled in these institutions ranged from 16 to 150 and totaled 1,859.

Three forms were used in collecting data:

1. A "Library Information Test" which was administered to 952 (or about half) of the student teachers in the institutions. Although the reliability of the test appears questionable, it did elicit some information as to what students do or do not know about certain library tools.

2. A "Record of Use of the Library" on which 548 student teachers recorded their reading activities for one week. On this form students also supplied personal information about their courses, whether or not they had had any library instruction, and their difficulties in using the library. Only eighteen of the thirty-one institutions provided a course of instruction in the use of the library. The college subjects which required the most library use were education theory, history, social science, student teaching, and English.

3. A blank for "Information about College and Library" which was submitted to a member of the faculty and to the librarian of each institution. This form covered such items as enrolment, student teaching facilities, various facts about the library, and opinions regarding influences affecting the use of the library.

To librarians in institutions which train secondary-school teachers, the findings present little that is new about the use of the library by student teachers; however, these librarians will be interested in seeing how the findings reinforce their own ideas on the subject. Faculty members in education departments and directors of teacher-training will probably find this survey helpful in critically analyzing and in reorganizing courses of study. In the summary chapter there are some suggestions for improving the use of libraries by student teachers. The recommendations are the same as the goals toward which many college administrators, librarians, and accrediting associations have been striving for years: adequate collections of materials, well-planned library housing, sufficiently large professional library staff, courses in library instruction, and co-operation between faculty members and library staff members.

The instruction of prospective teachers at all levels (elementary, secondary, and college) in the nature and use of materials and libraries is an emerging and increasingly important area of librarianship. Lancaster's survey is a contribution to this area, in which much more research is needed in order to identify and clarify the many issues involved.

MILDRED HAWKSWORTH LOWELL

*Missoula, Montana*

*The Southern Negro and the Public Library: A Study of the Government and Administration of Public Library Service to Negroes in the South.* By ELIZA ATKINS GLEASON. ("University of Chicago Studies in Library Science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. Pp. xvi+218. \$2.50.

This is a careful, competent, well-balanced study of an important subject, one of a number of related works produced under the able direction of L. R. Wilson. What service can nearly nine million Negroes living in thirteen southern states get from public libraries in their communities? What is the legal situation, and is there any hope for improvement through the use of legal remedies? Do any other institutions make up for the services which the public libraries fail to perform? Are there any signs of progress, any good local or state patterns which might be adopted generally? The author answers these and related questions.

Why is the subject of library service to Negroes in the South important? As one writer, quoted by the author, says: "Books and reading are of the utmost value in the education, development, and progress of the race . . . public library provision for negroes is only a part of the larger question of negro education."

No prophetic vision is required to see that those parts of the world which allow large portions of their population to remain ignorant and unskilled are going to occupy subordinate positions in the world of the future. Is it possible that the South can isolate itself, live its own life, unaffected by what happens elsewhere? It is said that the South is too poor, but what can be more costly to a people than ignorance? The truth is that the South is too poor to be able to afford ignorance.

The author refrains from argument and exhortation, and probably she is wise in doing so. Not that argument and exhortation are not needed. On the contrary, what is most urgently called for is wise and inspiring leadership able to translate into popular and persuasive terms the whole problem of which certain of the technical parts are here presented.

The picture given by the author, and this picture is undoubtedly authentic, is not encouraging. Public library service for everyone throughout the South, white and black, urban and rural, is pitifully inadequate; and for large portions of the population, particularly in the country, almost nonexistent. The author is content to give the facts in detail, clearly and with-

out argument. Her conclusions appear eminently sensible, are derived from successful state and local experience, and show that the possibilities for improvement are by no means hopeless.

W. T. COUCH

*University of North Carolina Press*

#### *Position-Classification in the Public Service.*

Chicago: Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1941. Pp. 404.

This is the third volume in the Civil Service Assembly's monumental series of reports on various aspects of the policies and practices of modern public personnel agencies. Information on the background of these reports was presented in the review by Harold W. Tucker of the first volume in the series, *Employee Training in the Public Service* (*Library Quarterly*, XI [1941], 528-30).

Each volume in this series is presented as the report of a committee, in this case the Committee on Position-Classification and Pay Plans in the Public Service. The twenty-one members of the committee include outstanding public administrators and distinguished personnel technicians. The man who had the greatest part in the actual preparation of the report was Ismar Baruch, chairman of the committee and chief of the Personnel Classification Division of the United States Civil Service Commission. Mr. Baruch is a most insightful and articulate authority on position classification, as anyone can testify who has ever heard him speak on the subject or read his writings.

Though the literature of position classification is not wanting—as evidenced by the wealth of documentation found in this volume—it consists for the most part either of original source documents or of studies of particular aspects of the subject. For the first time there is presented here a full-length statement that does justice to both the technical aspects and the administrative implications of position classification. The book is divided into three main sections: first, chapters on the history, uses, and fundamental concepts of position classification; second, a fifty-page chapter outlining specifically and in detail the "ultimate classification factors" by which positions are to be differentiated according to the duties of which they consist; and, third, a series of chapters that take up in turn the steps and problems involved in the authorization of a position classification plan, its development and adoption, its installa-

tion, the writing of class specifications, and its current administration. There are six appendixes with sample forms, but there is no index.

The subject is so clearly and masterfully presented in this report—as far as this reviewer is competent to judge—that the points on which one might take issue with it are few and mainly unimportant. Chief of these is the surprising lack of emphasis on the problems involved in the determination of grade levels. Some differences of opinion are unavoidable; but certainly the combined prestige of the members of the committee responsible for this volume makes it desirable to consider seriously the coming developments in position classification which are occasionally pointed out; e.g., the substitution of “desirable” for “minimum” qualifications, with the result that greater reliance has to be put on the examination process to identify the best candidates. Position classification is still in a flexible stage; this report is to be placed on the side of those who are questioning the correctness of certain established procedures.

Though the book was avowedly written for a multiple audience of personnel technicians, legislators, employees, and all others who are affected by position classification, the tenor of the writing is on the whole aimed at the level of those who are already conversant with public personnel administration. It is true that the introductory chapters are more general and less technical than the later chapters on the techniques of classification, but in no sense is this a primer of the subject. For those who are prepared to follow him, however, Mr. Baruch has the rare ability to analyze a complex situation logically and to present clearly a rational explanation and solution.

The subject of this book is not one that has much color or drama attached to it, even for students in the field. And yet it would be hard to overemphasize the importance of position classification to personnel administration in particular and increasingly to general administration also. Almost every other aspect of personnel administration depends on position classification to a greater or less extent, e.g., recruitment, examinations, transfer, promotions, in-service training, and service ratings. And the new light that position classification throws on the problems of over-all organization and administration is making this a tool whose uses for this purpose are still not fully explored or generally recognized.

It is to be noted that a position classification

plan is not necessarily, nor always desirably, associated with a pay plan, nor are the uses of the former limited by any means to implementing the latter. Thus this volume deals scarcely at all with the subject of pay plans, which it is announced will be given full-length treatment in a separate volume.

The report was written with the average-sized jurisdiction in mind, but an average-sized governmental jurisdiction probably has more employees than are to be found in most libraries. There is a great need for attention to the adaptation to small organization units of the theory and principles of all aspects of administration, position classification no less than others. That and the fact that an institution consisting largely of one occupational group presents certain unique problems in position classification should deter librarians from thinking that this volume has any final answer to their needs in this area.

Save where they are under civil service, libraries have not usually developed satisfactory position classification plans. In part, this has been a result of lack of funds and of the necessary technical knowledge; on the whole, however, it is probably to be explained by the lack of awareness by library administrators of the potential benefits of such plans. To these administrators special recommendation is made of chapter iv in this volume, on the uses and advantages of position classification.

The A.L.A. sponsored the 1927 *Proposed Classification and Pay Plans for Library Positions*, prepared by Mr. Fred Telford of the Bureau of Public Personnel Administration. In 1939 the Board on Salaries, Staff, and Tenure brought out its *Classification and Pay Plans for Municipal Public Libraries*, and work is now well under way on a similar plan for libraries of institutions of higher education. Such generalized statements, however, are sets of standards rather than position classification plans, which by definition must reflect a particular institution's specific job assignments. Though it is to their credit that librarians have thus been actively exploring the subject, there is still much to be done in mastering the theory and techniques of position classification and in adapting them to library work. This book is the best single statement of the subject available for that purpose.

HERBERT GOLDHOR

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University of Chicago

"Integration of Public Library Services in the Los Angeles Area." By RONALD M. KETCHAM. ("Studies in Local Government," No. 6.) Los Angeles: Bureau of Governmental Research, University of California at Los Angeles, 1942. Pp. 185. \$0.75 (mimeographed).

This apparently careful and sympathetic study of the complicated library structure in the Los Angeles area, by a research assistant from the Bureau of Governmental Research, is a thought-provoking document. It is heartily recommended to all trustees and administrators who are concerned with library service in overlapping jurisdictions—and few are not. It will bear close study by all public officials who are struggling with the creaking political machinery in wide-flung, expanding metropolitan areas. To the reviewer, familiar with the library structure in Cuyahoga County, Ohio, where independent public libraries are almost as numerous as in Los Angeles County and, furthermore, are all supported from a single tax source (the county tax on intangible properties), it was refreshing and enlightening to see a comparable picture through the eyes of a layman who is evidently familiar with his subject.

The report, which is "concerned with the history, organization, financial structure, and interrelationships of the several public library agencies located in the geographical confines of Los Angeles County," is based primarily upon material supplied by librarians in the area, though acknowledgment is made of considerable assistance from librarians outside the state of California. The technique chiefly relied upon was a questionnaire filled out during personal visits to each of the twenty-three public libraries concerned. Abundant and informative use is made of statistical data and tabular presentation.

Naturally, more attention and space are devoted to the Los Angeles City and Los Angeles County systems than to other and smaller independent organizations in the county. Particular emphasis is laid on the problems raised by such factors as irregular boundary lines; withdrawal of municipalities after having been a part of an administrative area; annexations by the city of Los Angeles of territories previously served by the County Library; overlapping service areas; location of service outlets of one administration without sufficient consideration of near-by outlets under a separate jurisdiction; lack of suffi-

cient co-operation in such matters as nonresident fees, interlibrary loans, and union lists and catalogs. Probably the most serious and pressing problem is that presented by declining city tax support, with the assumption "that there is to be no return to the bonanza days of the pre-depression years."

By and large, the author presents the county library picture in a more favorable light than that of the Los Angeles City Library. A number of factors are presented to account for this. In comparison with most independent libraries in the area, including that of the City of Los Angeles, the administration of the County Library is shown to be more economical. The system has been built upon the policy of nonownership of property—a feature particularly indorsed by the author. In most locations quarters are supplied rent free by local authorities. The book collection of the County Library is almost completely flexible, few books being permanently assigned to any agency. Elementary-school library service is greatly facilitated by the legal provision whereby school authorities may turn over school library funds to the County Library. These funds are used exclusively for school library service, and no salaries and wages are paid therefrom except in the school section of the children's division at headquarters.

With increasing population, shrinking income, and its long-time policy of locating branches within walking distance of most neighborhood residents, the Los Angeles City Library is faced with a serious situation. "One of the major factors preventing adjustment is the ownership of thirty-five buildings, which tends to shackle the movement of outlets along the paths of growth." Like all expanding library systems suddenly faced with decreasing revenue, the City Library has made reductions in service hours, in personnel, in allocations for book purchase. All libraries may well heed Mr. Ketcham's warning:

There is no single administrative measure, no one tactical approach, no "solution" for all time. Certain guiding principles should be established, on the basis of past experience and anticipated developments, but administrative experimentation should be possible within the framework of an enlightened, long-term program. Only by an outright departure from the present piecemeal attempts can the work of years be saved.

The author discusses various means for greater integration of service in the Los Angeles area. These include further development of

union lists and catalogs (already a familiar pattern to the librarians of southern California), greater liberality in and use of interlibrary loan provisions, and area-wide reciprocity in regard to nonresident fees. For the Los Angeles City Library the author visualizes the development of larger, more widely spaced branch libraries. His advocacy of a centralized, flexible book collection, following the County Library pattern, is open to question. The mechanics of such an arrangement becomes increasingly complicated as book collections become larger, and it would seem to represent questionable economy in the case of regional branches.

Suggestions made for alleviation of the problems presented lie chiefly within the field of voluntary co-operation. However, the final chapter explores very tentatively the possibilities within the present legal framework for undertaking of joint performance of governmental functions or for assumption by counties of municipal functions.

Laws dealing with the cooperative aspects of library administration are exceptionally broad and inclusive. Within the scope of these enactments, almost every conceivable type of functional consolidation, inter-agency collaboration, or area-wide centralization in a single authority is made possible.

Voluntary co-operation and planning offer, no doubt, the more pleasant path for development, but that method is often one which requires a major cataclysm in order to achieve any elements of speed. It is a matter of evolution versus revolution—and one wonders whether revolution will not be in the end more efficient and economical for many library service areas. Mr. Ketcham voices a final warning—which again should reach an audience far beyond the boundaries of California—when he says: "Unless improvement is fostered from within their ranks, librarians may find themselves subject to the enforced pooling of effort which local government retrenchment and post-war readjustments are likely to bring."

This is a report which deserves widespread attention. Its implications and observations have significance for regional public library development everywhere. Only by similar study and analysis and by frank and unbiased facing of facts can other metropolitan areas meet their approaching crisis.

AMY WINSLOW

Cuyahoga County Library  
Cleveland, Ohio

*Fiction Catalog: 1941 Edition.* Compiled by DOROTHY E. COOK and ISABEL S. MONRO, assisted by ELIZABETH S. DUVAL. ("Standard Catalog Series.") New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. xi+789. (On the service basis.)

This is the most practical and effective American bibliographical tool yet provided for the intelligent, constructive use of fiction, in broad contemporary range, in general library service. It has long been needed. Although not so strong or so finely welded as had been hoped, it is a notable achievement, doing for the first time with American mechanical efficiency what Baker's *Guide to the Best Fiction*, in scholarly English fashion, did a decade ago to unlock the storehouse of fiction in English. Indeed, this new *Fiction Catalog* will doubtless take its place as an "American Baker," more limited in scope and on a lower level of critical judgment, but simpler, more varied, and, of course, with the added value of immediate timeliness.

Technically, this is a volume in the "Standard Catalog Series," succeeding the *Standard Catalog: Fiction Section* (revised second edition) of 1931, but it is, in fact, a new and different work that represents a compromise between the original "Standard Catalog" plan and the comprehensive subject index to fiction so long desired by librarians. The project of such an index was given consideration by Wilson soon after the publication of the 1931 edition of the *Standard Catalog: Fiction Section*. Questionnaires were then sent to librarians to determine how comprehensive a subject index was needed. Presumably, as the extent and complexity of the field became more fully evident, a full-scale definitive subject index to fiction in English seemed too formidable an undertaking; and it was decided to expand the former *Fiction Section* (the name "Fiction Catalog" was not used on the title-page of these earlier editions) sufficiently to make it "serve both as a buying list of the best fiction for library use and as a reference tool including a subject index to fiction." Between these two stools of purpose the catalog almost inevitably lost its balance, so that the subject index has become a subsidiary feature of the selective buying list rather than a basic, fully developed reference tool for the topical and analytical use of fiction. Actual work of compilation began in 1938, when the first tentative list of more than 15,000 titles was sent to each collaborator; in all, more than 20,000 titles were considered for a final selection, based on



votes received as well as on editorial judgment. The list of thirty-three collaborators includes seventeen individual librarians and the staffs of fifteen libraries; the Cleveland Public Library especially, which has done such remarkable work in organizing and indexing its fiction collection, gave valuable aid in the working-out of the subject arrangement.

The volume is, as far as I know, the fullest bibliographic guide to fiction that has yet appeared in the United States. The *A.L.A. Catalog, 1926*, gave to fiction little more than a tenth (specifically, 1,129) of its 10,000 volumes. The *Standard Catalog: Fiction Section* of 1931 contained about 2,400 titles. In Lenrow's admirable *Reader's Guide to Prose Fiction*, more specialized in scope, 1,500 titles are included. The *Fiction Catalog* exceeds them all with its 5,520 titles, of which 5,050 receive full entry and 470 are referred to in notes. But for amplitude of substance and for quality of appraisal first place must still go to the British achievement of Baker's *Guide*, with its record of 7,696 volumes. In these two respects the present catalog fails to meet the perhaps illusory hope for a subject index to fiction comprehensive enough in its inclusion of desirable material and skilful enough to impart appreciation of literature while assaying the factual, informational, and interpretative values that relate contemporary fiction to all fields of knowledge and every aspect of life. A basic fiction collection of 5,500 titles seems to me insufficient for a medium-sized public library, and I wish it had been deemed practicable to enlarge the present list to 8,000—or, preferably, 10,000—titles. This would have made it possible to include material of much value that is not widely known and would have greatly enriched the representation of historical and regional novels.

Like all Wilson lists, the catalog is essentially functional, especially effective in simple organization and condensed technical detail. The alphabet holds it to a smooth, rapid, undeviating course: author, title, form, and subject entries in a single straightaway record. Full names, authors' dates, and adequate imprint data are given, and information as to prices and availability is meticulously indicated as of 1941. This close checking of out-of-print books is a valuable detail for a buying list but of minor importance in a subject index to fiction. For here content is of first significance, and the existence of a worthy book justifies its inclusion. Out-of-print titles have wisely been given lib-

eral representation, but it is surprising and regrettable to see how many first-rank novels of comparatively recent publication come within the "o.p." category—Grace Zaring Stone's *The Cold Journey*, Robert Graves's *Count Belisarius*, Clement Dane's *Broome Stages*, all of Evelyn Scott's novels that are listed, L. H. Myers' fine trilogy, *The Root and the Flower*, are examples. Books published up to and through June, 1941, are included; and (although emphasis is on recent rather than older material) classics, standards, and many earlier-vintage novels have been carefully gleaned.

Some 1,100 books recommended for first purchase, particularly in small libraries, are indicated, as are about 835 titles regarded as suitable for young people (a stimulating and discriminating selection, though somewhat restrictive). Four hundred and fifty collections of short stories are listed as a representative selection for small libraries: on the whole, a satisfactory group, although it is disappointing to find Cunningham's *Rodeo*, Ralph Bates's *Sirocco*, and Ben Hecht's *Book of Miracles* missing. Many other specialized lists have their alphabetic place: notably, adventure novels, mystery and detective fiction, novels that have received literary awards and prizes, sea stories, western stories, and translations. A few groups that relate to aspects of literary history are curiously inadequate. Thus, if "Unfinished Novels" are to be recorded at all, certainly Conrad's *Suspense*, Pater's *Gaston de Latour*, and Thackeray's *Denis Duval* should find place among them. And whatever niche is assigned to Beckford's famous oriental fantasy, *Valhek*, it does not belong among "Gothic Romances."

Lack of an integrating background knowledge of literature, a ripe and discriminating familiarity with the books themselves, is a chief weakness of the volume. In substance and presentation it could have been much improved by greater sensitiveness to literary values, less response to the commonplace and the superficial. Much winnowing has undoubtedly been done. Many of the stereotypes that appeared in the *Standard Catalog: Fiction Section* of 1931 have disappeared, Grace Livingston Hill and Ruby Ayres among them; Harold Bell Wright is reduced to two titles, each with good subject relationship. "Westerns," still flourish: 35 for Zane Grey, 19 for William M. Raine, 13 for Curwood, others in generous supply. There are 28 novels by Joseph C. Lincoln—certainly a plentiful allotment; Grace Richmond and

Kathleen Norris have 9 apiece. On the other hand, much excellent older fiction is brought, it may be hoped, to further usefulness. F. Marion Crawford's best is here, unwithered by time; Booth Tarkington in a forty-year harvest; Henry James in an excellent, Howells in a too-scanty, gleanings; George W. Cable, Mary Murfree, samplings from the older generation of English writers (it is good to find Flora Annie Steel's novel of the Indian Mutiny, *On the Face of the Waters*, which has strong subject value today), great names from the past, and a too limited representation (a little more than one-tenth of the total content) of foreign fiction in English translation.

Much, especially in older fiction, is omitted that would enrich both the literary and the subject values of the catalog. Mrs. Gaskell's *Mary Barton* still holds historical and social significance; Aldrich's *Stillwater Tragedy* has valid relationship to present-day "strike fiction"; William Hale White's *Mark Rutherford* novels remain valuable social and spiritual studies of nineteenth-century England. In present-day fiction there are surprising omissions: among them, Louis Aragon's *Bells of Basel*, John Brophy's excellent fictional study of Shakespeare (*Gentleman of Stratford*), Helen Ashton's fine biographic novel of Henry Vaughan (*The Swan of Usk*), Sylvia Townsend Warner's *After the Death of Don Juan*, Kathleen Coyle's *Immortal Ease*—all with important subject relationships. Under China, place should have been found for Giles's famous collection, *Strange Stories from a Chinese Studio*; for Edgar Snow's collection of modern Chinese short stories, *Living China*; and for the ancient Chinese romance, *The Breeze in the Moonlight*; while for India, Rabindranath Tagore's two novels, *The Home and the World* and *The Wreck* (both written in English), would have added valuable subject material on Hindu life and character.

The annotations, drawn from many sources, are extremely uneven. Those taken from Baker's *Guide* are the finest in graphic compression and in a quality of appreciation that carries the flavor of the book to the reader; I would cite those for *Madame Bovary*, for Mérimée's *Colomba*, and for Beckford's *Vathek* as examples that set a standard rarely reached in American aids. The *Booklist* and the *Book Review Digest* have also been extensively used. In general, the annotations are descriptive and factual, with little differentiation between novels of high quality and those of minor merit: Zane Grey and Jack-

son Gregory receive as ample characterization as Thomas Hardy. The annotation for Joyce's *Ulysses* gives no indication of the book's stature as a creative work of genius. As a whole, the annotation work of the catalog seems to me inferior in discrimination and maturity to that of Lenrow's *Reader's Guide to Prose Fiction*.

In its subject-index aspect, the catalog accepts and expands the pattern of practical utility long familiar in the *Book Review Digest* index and in other Wilson lists. There are many new, ingenious headings, and the arrangement of larger subjects follows the forms that would be used for nonfiction—a welcome step toward breaking down the barrier that limits full constructive use of the novel as part of the literature of knowledge. Specific subject headings are mingled with others that reflect reader approach to particular kinds of fiction—not only the obvious, like "Cheerful Stories," "Love Stories," "Autobiographical Novels," but new and provocative variations, such as "First Person," "One Day Action," "Letters" (novels in letter form, that run from *Clarissa Harlowe* to *The Late George Apley*), and "Real People" (under which that spurious chronicle, *The Journey of the Flame*, appears under false pretenses). Painstaking work has been done in bringing out subject content; *Anthony Adverse* appears under sixteen subject headings, and in numerous cases analytic chapter or page reference is made to subject material. Sometimes these multiple index entries seem rather overdone: I have been unable to discover any subject undercurrent that explains the mystifying appearance of Caroline Slade's grim novel of the relief problem (*The Triumph of Willie Slade*) under "Astronomers." There is no segregation of historical novels, either in a single list or under countries; the period divisions under countries give guidance here, and close demarcation would be very difficult; but I feel that in representation of historical and regional fiction the catalog has many deficiencies. Indeed, omissions and errors are often evident. Under "Animals," Henry Williamson's notable study, *Tarka, the Otter*, is missing, but his idealistic novel, *Dream of Fair Women*, which is concerned only with the human species, is included. Williamson's fine book, *Salar, the Salmon*, in which fiction is a medium for transmission of sound scientific knowledge, is also absent, and the heading "The Salmon Industry" conveys only a single, rather minor title. Robert Herrick's *Clark's Field* belongs under "Chicago," not under "California." Un-

der "Department Stores" I miss Ann Pence Davis' novel, *The Customer Is Always Right*; and among "Utopias" there should have been place for Granville Hicks's *The First To Awaken*.

But, if there are reservations to be made in any critical consideration of the catalog, there must also be satisfaction in what has been accomplished. It offers richness, variety, and continuing usefulness to librarians, readers' advisers, teachers, workers with books in other fields, and to a great body of readers who will be its indirect ultimate users. It represents, I think, an enlarging realization of the values that fiction holds as a medium of public education. This volume, Lenrow's *Reader's Guide*, and the annotated guide to *America in Fiction* by Coan and Lillard, published last year by Stanford University Press, are recent tangible evidence of that realization and aids to its fuller achievement.

HELEN E. HAINES

Pasadena, California

*The Fortune of Books: Essays, Memories and Prophecies of a Librarian.* By J. CHRISTIAN BAY. Chicago: Walter M. Hill, 1941. Pp. xi+442. \$5.00.

A distinguished Chicago librarian, commenting on this collection of essays by her fellow-townsmen, remarked to the reviewer: "Mr. Bay has written his own *Festschrift*." Certainly this book admirably illustrates the breadth of its author's interests and the diversity of his contributions to the library profession. The twenty-nine essays which comprise the volume are, with one exception, reprints of essays which have appeared between 1916 and 1941. They have been divided into five sections.

The first section is entitled "Bookmen and Scientists." In this, the first essay is an account of Dr. Daniel Drake, the pioneer physician, professor of medicine, and literary man of Cincinnati and Kentucky. The next paper deals with the remarkable Conrad Gesner, "father of bibliography"—also classical scholar, philologist, botanist, zoölogist, artist, and physician; in fact, possibly the most nearly perfect realization of the ideal of the universal man of the Renaissance. The three following chapters of this section deal with Claude Bernard, the physiologist; with Jean Senebier, theologian, librarian, and plant physiologist; and with Robert Kennicott,

naturalist and explorer. The sixth paper is an interesting account of the life and book-collecting activities of Edward E. Ayer, the founder of the American Indian Collection at the Newberry Library. The last three papers of the section treat the Chicago surgeon Dr. Christian Fenger, the Chicago collector Chester H. Thordarson, and George Washington as citizen and farmer.

In the second section, "Library Life," we find papers on "Inspiration through Cataloguing," "The Sciences in the Training of a Librarian," "Book Selection for a Scientific and Technical Reference Library," "The Library School and Library Life," "The Making of a Plain Bookcase"—a description of cases which Dr. Bay has been making with his own hands for over twenty years—and, finally, on Dr. Clement Walker Andrews, the author's predecessor as librarian of the John Crerar Library.

The third section, "Books and Literary Events," is headed by a chapter entitled "The Origin and Development of Shakespeare's *Hamlet*." Mr. Bay suggests that English players who visited Elsinore in 1585 brought back descriptions of the castle which were woven into the play of their later associate, William Shakespeare. This is followed by an amusing account of a thesis argued in 1594, "Women Not Considered Human Beings," by "The *Pickwick Papers*: Some Bibliographical Remarks," and by a "Classical Case of Bibliological Identification"—an account of the finding of a copy of the *Imitatio Christi* of St. Thomas à Kempis with the autograph of Jean Jacques Rousseau and with some sprigs of periwinkle which he placed there. In "Tom Sawyer, Detective: The Origin of the Plot," Mr. Bay traces the plot of Mark Twain's story to a disappearance or murder which occurred in Denmark in 1607. Next follow essays on "The Response of Science to Agriculture," "Scarce and Beautiful Imprints of Chicago," "Rinaldo Rinaldini and George Washington"—an amusing account of how in an American edition of Christian Vulpius' novel the tragic ending is altered; the hero, an Italian bandit chieftain, is revived after his presumed death and serves as an officer in the American Revolution—and "A Tennyson-Browning Association Book."

The fourth section, "Time and Change," begins with a chapter "Johan Gutenberg, Robert Fulton, Samuel Colt and Peter Rasmussen." Mr. Bay draws an analogy between the independent invention of the revolver mechanism in

Denmark and America and the possible independent invention of printing by more than one man in the fifteenth century. Two short stories, both pointing a moral, conclude the section: "Inter arma loquantur musae" and "The Station Master."

The final section, "Americana," comprises three essays grouped under the title "Three Handfuls of Western Books"—a story of Mr. Bay's collecting in a specialized field. This section has an index compiled by Ronald Todd.

Much that is interesting, much that is instructive, may be found in the pages of J. Christian Bay's *The Fortune of Books*.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

Folger Shakespeare Library

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*Outlines of Russian Culture*, Part I: *Religion and the Church*; Part II: *Literature*; Part III: *Architecture, Painting, and Music*. By PAUL MILIUKOV, edited by MICHAEL KARPOVICH, translated by VALENTINE UGHET and ELEANOR DAVIS. 3 vols. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1942. Pp. xiii + 220, v + 130, v + 159. \$5.00.

For a third time the eminent Russian historian, Professor Paul Miliukov, has given a book to the English-reading public. All three of his writings appearing in English derive from what he has himself designated as his basic work, *Outlines of the History of Russian Culture*. His first volume in English was *Russia and Its Crisis*, published by the University of Chicago Press in 1905, and it prepared its readers to understand a revolution which came to Russia in that same year. The volume entitled *Russia Today and Tomorrow*, written in 1928, after ten years of another revolution which forced liberals like Miliukov into exile, had markedly the approach of the publicist—as opposed to that of the historian—and of the political leader who had lost out, and in a very complete way.

Then Miliukov the historian, in forced emigration from his native land, returned to his old theme, preparing and publishing an enlarged edition of his fundamental work on Russian civilization. It is from this publication that the contents of these three small volumes have been selected. For this English edition there has been abridgment in addition to editing, with the approval of the author. Professor Karpovich of

Harvard, acting as editor, has also added for each section a postscript bringing the outline up to date (October, 1941).

While one regrets the omission of such subjects as political ideas and education in the English version, one must welcome the materials given in these outlines on the important subjects covered, as they add to our too meager literature in English on Russian history. Like the original, these studies can be only summaries within the space used, but even such are needed from competent historians to give the perspective as well as the general content of Russian cultural development.

Representing the Russian share in what the Russian Bolsheviks call the "bourgeois" past, Miliukov naturally inveighs against the negative attitude which the Revolution took toward it. Had he been able to include the events of the last years he might have emphasized even more than he has the extent to which "Russia" has nevertheless prevailed in the course of the Revolution. The postscripts of the editor were written after June 22, 1941, while the author's Preface was prepared before that date. And on the basis of recent events and the character of the Russian performance, there has been considerable revision of interpretation of the Soviet regime.

In his 1905 book on Russia Miliukov stressed points of similarity between Russia and America, both of which countries he characterized as "young." Adverting to this earlier comparison, the author tends to qualify it, as valid only with respect to the material base. At the time of the writing of his Preface—December, 1940—the author saw Russia hesitating while America's "torch of liberty illumines the world." As this review is written in the atmosphere of the British-Soviet alliance and the American-Soviet agreement of a few months ago, one may suggest that Miliukov would be willing to add to, and perhaps even qualify, some of his statements of several years ago respecting the cultural content of the revolutionary Soviet period of Russian history.

The religious tradition in Russia was a strong force in the earlier periods, as Miliukov shows. Then there came, and precisely in the last century of the "bourgeois" past, the extreme clericalism of the established church under autocracy. It was in part, and in large part, against clericalism that the Revolution acted, often ruthlessly. The editor notes an easing-up of the

policy of restriction on the church but states that "real religious freedom has not been granted." Neither author nor editor, as Russian liberals, would understand as "real religious freedom" the role of the church in politics and education that characterized the pre-Revolutionary regime in Russia.

Each of the volumes has an excellent bibliography of books in English, and also in German and French, on the subject matter covered. These will be particularly useful to librarians, who may well be under pressure these days for more literature on Russia.

SAMUEL N. HARPER

University of Chicago

*What's in a Novel.* By HELEN E. HAINES. ("Columbia University Studies in Library Service," No. 6.) New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. xi+283. \$2.75.

Miss Haines's answer to the question raised by the title of her book is a very simple one. She is not concerned, she writes, with "critical analysis from the standpoint of literary art" but with "specific factual indication of substance and purpose and effect."

It is time that critics and educators revise the familiar dogma of literary criticism that the values of fiction are purely aesthetic (as Mortimer Adler remarks, "there are novelists who do not know the difference between fiction and sociology"), and give recognition to its practical values of exposition and information.

(Dr. Adler will certainly be impressed by this misuse of his dictum.) Miss Haines has deliberately passed over "the more controversial aspects of contemporary fiction." She has not explored "the Debatable Land of forays and reprisals on moral issues, the embattled, fog-enveloped ramparts of censorship." For her, the most important part of what's in a novel is its subject matter, its "factual information," "background knowledge," "material of information." In the light of this choice she has classified a very large number of novels, defined the principle of classification, and indicated the subject matter of the particular novels she has classified. Her major classes are the domestic novel, the historical novel, the realistic novel, the regional novel, the novel of fantasy, the detective story, European fiction, and Latin-American fiction. Usually the account of the subject mat-

ter is reasonably full, but on page 56 she polishes off nine novels and on page 98 she disposes of nine more.

Despite Miss Haines's protest that she will not indulge in literary criticism, she has not been able to refrain from passing critical judgments and making aesthetic observations. Thus, in her judgment, Steinbeck's *In Dubious Battle* is "the most honest, courageous, and penetrating proletarian novel of high literary craftsmanship that has so far come from an American writer," Rivera's *The Vortex* "probably the most remarkable production of Latin American fiction," and Svevo's *The Confessions of Zeno* "the most brilliant modern Italian novel." The quality of her aesthetic insight and critical style may be gauged by the following passage inspired by Zora Huston's *Their Eyes Were Watching God*:

It has a pristine rhythm in expression, a poetic savor a little like the imagery of the spirituals; and it uses the unpurified speech, the common, gross naturalism of phrase, that is the natural utterance of the people it depicts. With this naturalism mingles the rich imaginative gift of the race, warmth and humor and pristine simplicity.

Since the author's deliberate intention was to avoid the "Debatable Land" of fiction that raises problems of censorship, the reader will not be surprised to find only two casual references to Proust and Joyce, three sentences allotted to Theodore Dreiser, and a half-sentence devoted to William Faulkner. Even Mrs. Woolf, who, one might have thought, was sufficiently ladylike to please Miss Haines, is disposed of in two and a half sentences. D. H. Lawrence appears only as the author of an introduction to Edward Dahlberg's *Bottom Dogs*. The scale of values implicit in Miss Haines's judgments is sufficiently illustrated by the fact that she devotes two pages to Thomas Mann and four to Robert Nathan!

Despite the author's aesthetic unconcern and paralyzing prudishness, her book should prove useful to students and clubwomen who undertake to write papers. The chapters on European and Latin-American fiction, on the detective story and the novel of fantasy, are particularly fresh and suggestive. Middle-brow advisers to middle-brow readers will find the book indispensable.

FRED B. MILLETT

Wesleyan University



*Social Causation.* By R. M. MACIVER. ("Columbia University Social Science Series.") Boston: Ginn & Co., 1942. Pp. x+414. \$3.50.

Research in librarianship is often concerned with questions of causation. When we notice certain conditions in connection with libraries, we want to know how they came about, what they in turn produced, and how they might have been modified. We wonder to what forces the origin of the American public library may be attributed. We speculate on the reasons for the development of different types of library government in different sections of the country. We ask: Why does the public library attract certain groups of the population and leave others untouched? Why are certain books more popular than others? Why do certain groups of people differ from others in their preferences for different nonfiction topics? Why are libraries better supported in some states than in others?

All questions of this sort have to do with causation. Those who attempt to answer them intelligently are frequently struck by their complexity. Professor MacIver's treatise is designed to help investigators to distinguish the different types of causal questions that may be asked, the different levels on which answers may be sought, and the different methods through which answers may be obtained. It also serves to make investigators more critical of the types of research result that frequently tend to pass as answers to causal questions without meeting the necessary criteria. Finally, the book presents to the more advanced student the major controversies that have arisen in connection with the investigation of social causation. If used as a textbook, MacIver's discussion should probably be balanced by a sample of the operationalist point of view.

The author regards the discovery or identification of causal links as the ultimate aim of research in the social sciences. He, therefore, tries first to refute arguments that question the very concept of causality (Hume, Russell, *et al.*) and then proceeds to a criticism of those social scientists who fail to make proper allowances for the essential difference between physical and social causation and who content themselves with the discovery and calculation of statistical correlations. Looking for correlations is shown to be pointless unless we suspect that the factors in question may be causally related (p. 100). We should not limit our interest to mere measurement in our study of social trends:

We want to understand them, to discover what forces promote and what forces hinder them, to follow their effects in the lives of men and the whole moving system, to predict their further course, and possibly to find means for their control. And none of these things can we do unless we look beyond indices and graphs to search for causes [p. 132].

Granted that social scientists should extend their search beyond the realm of statistics, how and where should they look for genuine causes? On the purely logical side the answer lies in Mill's method of difference, properly modified to fit the peculiarities of social science phenomena. As the author puts it: "The only effective quest for causes is that which enquires into a specific difference between two or more comparable situations" (p. 89). MacIver emphasizes, however, that a challenging difference is required at the outset and that our explanations should be given in terms of relevant factors. How to distinguish relevant from irrelevant factors is, of course, the difficulty. And at this point the author unfortunately fails to be sufficiently explicit. All he tells us is that adequate explanations generally relate to cultural values and are of a subjectively meaningful nature. Thus fascism is explained in terms of conflicting value claims (p. 342); the increase in the divorce rate is traced to the lowered importance which we nowadays attach to the continuity of the family through several generations (p. 338); and so on.

The explanations are presented as hypotheses requiring verification; but the statistical test is never sufficient. Full verification requires that the assumed relationships be shown to be meaningful in the experiences of the individuals involved. Such sociopsychological evidence is obtainable (a) through interview data, personal documents, confessions, etc., and (b) through the investigator's projecting himself by "sympathetic reconstruction" into situations as they are assessed by others (p. 391). According to MacIver these two types of method provide the chief means of reaching a knowledge of causes in the social sciences.

In general, the author has succeeded well in pointing out the many shortcomings of contemporary social research and in exposing some of the weaknesses of operationalism. His own methodological position, however, does not appear to be fully worked out as yet.

HANS MULLER

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*The Conceptual Structure of Educational Research: A Symposium Held in Connection with the Fiftieth Anniversary Celebration of the University of Chicago.* By T. R. MCCONNELL, DOUGLAS E. SCATES, and FRANK N. FREEMAN. ("Supplementary Educational Monographs," No. 55.) Chicago: University of Chicago, 1942. Pp. vii+47. \$0.90.

It would be difficult, I think, to phrase a title better calculated to repel the average librarian and the average academic scholar. If true, this is unfortunate. If it were within my power I should make a goodly part of its forty-seven pages required reading for most members of both groups. Once the reader gets past the formidable title, somewhat less than the usual complement of "Pedagogy," and a modicum of amateur logic and historiography, he finds an honest and intelligent analysis of the objectives, the nature, and the limitations of research—scientific and educational. This reader, for one, acquired from the monograph a new respect for the potentialities of educational research, if not for the mill run of educational researchers.

The reader who is familiar with the history and philosophy of science will find little that is new or original. He will, however, find in Professor Scates's paper a succinct and valuable analysis of the "concepts," external and internal, which inevitably affect, in varying degree, every research study. No scholar or student who ignores these concepts (and they are frequently ignored) can intelligently conduct research or read reports of research. Scates is sometimes on thin ice in the first section of his paper, "The Effect of Society's Concepts on the Productivity of Research," but the subject is clearly too vast to permit adequate treatment in four pages. In his treatment of "The Effect of the Worker's Concepts on the Quality of Research," "Place of Facts in Research," and "Place of Ideas in Research," he is more at home. The seven pages on which these topics are discussed should be studied (not just "read") by every budding library "scientist" and by most practicing librarians. If they record nothing that is new they certainly include much that is new to many librarians and much that is inexcusably ignored by researcher and practitioner alike. I prescribe these seven pages for the ego of the former and the tolerance of the latter.

Professor McConnell's paper is concerned with "The Nature of Educational Research" and Professor Freeman's with "Controlling

Concepts in Educational Research." Both emphasize, from different points of view, the relationship of educational research to "basic and related disciplines": biology, physiology, anthropology, psychology, sociology, political science, and economics. Both emphasize, too, the practical nature of educational research as the quest for solutions to problems. McConnell's essay particularly is very nearly as relevant to research in library service as to educational investigation.

Implicit in McConnell's analysis is a faith in technique which I cannot share.

Progress in scientific investigation is being made by more thorough utilization of the basic sciences, by directing research toward central rather than peripheral problems, by increasing the precision of measurement and improving techniques of securing data, and by developing experimental designs which make it possible to study the interrelations of factors at more complex levels of organization.

Give us an important problem and a complicated and well-lubricated machine; we'll push a button and out will come the answer. Probably McConnell would deny his intent to imply anything of the sort. No one, I think, would deny the importance of his three conditions of "progress in scientific investigation." But faith in the omnipotence of machinery is unmistakably a cardinal vice of much research, as it is, indeed, of twentieth-century civilization. Scates may have had this problem in mind when he said:

I think "research" can best be defined as the process of removing facts from their natural setting and fitting them together again according to some mental pattern. . . . Practically, a fact is not an objective thing; when observed, it becomes an item in a scheme of thought. . . . What the significance of the fact is will depend largely on the thought pattern in which it is caught [p. 34].

This concept makes the *researcher* the most important element in the research process and suggests that "substantial progress in scientific investigation" is likely to result largely from the development of researchers with improved "mental patterns."

Of the three papers, Freeman's is perhaps least important, and certainly least interesting, to the librarian. Freeman's emphasis is upon a distinction between scientific research and practical research.

Science seeks systems and generalizations. Practical research seeks answers to questions of procedure [p. 43]. . . . In conclusion, educational re-

search is practical research and utilizes practical concepts. It is not, in itself, a science and therefore does not demand the creation of new scientific concepts. It leans heavily on the sciences, chiefly the social and biological sciences; but no new concepts are used, merely the concepts of the sciences themselves [p. 47].

Few librarians would find unprofitable an evening spent with this little volume. Those with limited time to devote to it should certainly read pages 27-31 and 33-36.

G. FLINT PURDY

Wayne University Library  
Detroit, Michigan

*Literature for Individual Education.* By ESTHER RAUSHENBUSH. ("Sarah Lawrence College Publications," No. 1.) New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. xiv+262. \$2.75.

No greater opportunity for the librarian lies in the future than in the assistance he can render toward the reading of college students. As the barrier between college faculties and library staffs is being whittled down by the integration of the library program with that of the college and the realization on both sides of a great common task—perhaps the most significant aspect of a liberal education—the library becomes less the repository of book collections and the staff its custodians and more the laboratory in which the student finds his most enduring experiences. College and university librarians have recognized the problem; in so far as they have been invited to participate actively in the changing educational trends, they have made real contributions. They have not remained satisfied in perfecting the service and facilities they can provide for departmental and divisional course offerings; they have long been aware of the integration which can go on solely in an academic center that brings all subjects and areas of knowledge together. And they have sought to meet the need which lies beyond the purely academic and required reading. Every effort has been made to stimulate general cultural reading—not just recreational reading as an escape from the burden of assignments, but reading which integrates problems that puzzle the student mind and arouse his curiosity. Through these last forty years of its history the browsing room, save for few instances, was less the desire of the librarian than another opportunity for the display of alumni munificence; and the value

of its dubious luxury is more openly questioned in these years of seeking again "plain living and high thinking." Of far more practical use to the encouragement of intelligent student reading has been the development of the reader's adviser service. A browsing room which can afford such an assistant in charge begins to fulfil its function adequately. But the room is of far less importance than the books and the proper guidance to them.

It is stimulating, therefore, to come upon a study which is of practical help to the reader's adviser, especially when it comes out of the work of faculty colleagues who are striving to accomplish the same end that the librarian is. Readers of the *Library Quarterly* are not so much interested in the merits of the individualized educational program at Sarah Lawrence College as they are in the evidence that, properly motivated, even Freshmen will read substantially in the best literature. In her study Mrs. Raushenbush gives the librarian new hope and great encouragement.

Since 1935 the faculty of Sarah Lawrence College has been engaged in a close examination of the teaching process and of teaching methods, especially methods used in certain courses for Freshmen. They have co-operated in keeping records of their observations. Mrs. Raushenbush's study, one of three now published, deals with the exploratory course in literature, one of four given in the fields of science, art, social science, and literature.

The purpose of an exploratory course is to help a student establish an attitude toward literature and toward other academic disciplines; to sharpen the student's awareness of herself, of ways of life, of the world, to the end that we may decrease the amount of academic work that is merely formal for her and increase the amount that is really significant, that she can really absorb and use; to bring her academic work into close enough relation to her inner life, to her emotional attitudes and her immediate emotional and intellectual concerns, so that directly or indirectly what she reads in the library and talks about in class or conference will be of some use to her in dealing with these concerns.

For the librarian to appreciate fully the value of the book he needs to know briefly what the author covers in her text. Chapter i discusses generally the principal assumptions of the Sarah Lawrence program; chapter ii describes in detail the intentions and methods of the exploratory courses; and chapter iii the exploratory course in literature in particular. Chapters iv and v describe the plans, the directions, and the

emphases of various people who teach these courses, and present, from the records, some typical class discussions. The last three chapters deal not so much with the courses as with the students who take them, describing in detail the work of various students, in some cases both as Freshmen and in the subsequent years of their college work.

Let the librarian turn to chapter iii, "An Approach to Books," and substitute in his reading "librarian" or "reader's adviser" each time the term "teacher of the exploratory course" is used, and he will see how truly educational his work with the reading of college students can be. He will find the question "What particular books seem most useful for inciting discussions, even *thinking?*" adequately answered in the Appendix to the study, the most useful portion of the book to him. Here are listed "The Books the Freshmen Read"—170 titles with illuminating comments by the instructors as to Freshman response to the books they read. In preparing this list, "the search was not so much for books the students should read as for those they would read—and discuss." Novels, plays, short stories, poems, and a few biographies are listed. In addition to these 170 titles, it is important to note other titles introduced into the discussions of the courses and into case histories given as examples in the last five chapters of the book. Here we come upon discussions of 104 additional books used—striking evidence of skilful instruction in guidance in reading. The librarian might well acquaint himself with the methods used and know these 274 titles well enough to be able to suggest them to the student seeking reading matter in this wide variety of topics of particular interest to an inquirer.

From the point of view of the librarian, it may be regretted that only the slightest passing references are made to the library and its use. It would be exceedingly helpful to know how the classes and conferences were conducted, where they were held, and whether the students were "exposed" to a browsing corner or room, or where they found these books. Nevertheless, one need seek no further for ample evidence of the assistance which can be given to the college undergraduate by faculty and librarian alike in stimulating his reading by thus linking it so completely with the problems that form themselves in his young mind and can be answered out of books.

PHILIP M. BENJAMIN

Reis Library  
Allegheny College

*Educational Motion Pictures and Libraries.* By GERALD DOAN McDONALD. Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. Pp. xii+183. \$2.75.

Although many individual librarians have given increasing attention to the problem of educational films and libraries, members of the profession have, on the whole, failed to recognize the significance of this topic. For this reason, Mr. McDonald's book is doubly welcome and should be recommended as "must" reading for every librarian in the country.

*Educational Motion Pictures and Libraries* is the result of a careful study sponsored in part by the Rockefeller Foundation and carried out by an expert in the field who

brought to the task not only experience as a librarian, but also deep personal interest and a background of rich observation in the field of educational motion pictures. He made an exhaustive search of printed and written sources of information on the relation of libraries to educational films and visited libraries, film distribution and production agencies, and persons with experience in certain phases of the problem in various sections of the country.

The book covers the following topics: the educational responsibility of the library, the educational film, films and the public library, films in adult education, films in the school library, films in the college and university library, films as historical records, training for library film service.

Six appendixes are included which, in the opinion of this reviewer, are as valuable as the main body of the book. They deal with the following phases of the subject: (a) care and preservation of 16-mm. films, (b) starting a film library, (c) film service in three libraries, (d) materials used with a film forum on "The River," (e) filmstrips, (f) suggested list of reference materials for an educational film information service.

In the Introduction, Mary U. Rothrock speaks, as chairman, for the committee which sponsored the study. Here are presented findings and recommendations in which the committee suggests six specific situations where experimentation, demonstration, or development are especially needed. Miss Rothrock points out that in the report itself is given the best statement of the educational potentialities of films—as follows:

Films introduce a world we never saw, a life we never lived, and people we never knew. They show glimpses of beauty to be treasured and of ugliness

which men must strive to obliterate. They can speak directly to many who are not accustomed to obtaining ideas from the printed page. They quickly summarize a subject, raise an issue, or pose a problem. They furnish a speedy method of communication to large groups, and provide them with a common experience. They provide a visual imagery to be applied to the things people read. They can clarify job techniques for the worker, picture the living past for the historian, and extend the range of the eye for the scientist. They have in them the power to open study on vital problems, to plead the case for neglected humanity, to revitalize democracy, and to develop a more responsible citizenship.

Miss Rothrock indicates, moreover, that the three most pressing problems for librarians are: how to use films to greatest educational advantage, how to improve distribution and provide more "personalized contact between producer or distributor and the consumer," and how to train librarians and educators for the most effective use of films for educational ends.

Certainly all librarians who have given this matter serious consideration will admit that the problem of distribution is indeed a grave one. And yet, even more pressing at the moment is the problem of training for library film service. Although restrictions on projectors and priorities on film may, for the duration, curtail expansion in this field, librarians can begin or continue preparation for post-war developments. Thoughtful consideration should, therefore, be given to the chapter on "Training for Library Film Service." Here the author stresses the fact that we shall need to follow our familiar principle of "getting the right material to the right audience"; that we shall need special training and information before such work can be carried on successfully.

Mr. McDonald urges that library assistants who are to work with films enrol in courses in visual education and motion pictures. "Courses in visual education," he states, "usually begin with the definition, history, philosophy and psychology of visual aids, followed by lessons on the different types of materials." The content of a motion picture unit is outlined in considerable detail. It is suggested, further, that the library assistant who cannot take formal courses of this type can prepare for film librarianship through self-education by the following means: "wide reading, attendance at conferences and institutes, hearing speakers on film subjects, seeing as many educational films as possible, and learning by putting his information to actual use in the library." Here a well-annotated list

of readings is presented under the heading "Suggested Reading Course for the Film Librarian."

Before Pearl Harbor this book might have been considered a more significant contribution than at this moment of uncertainty in the field. And yet our concern with post-war planning should offset any handicap on that score. Use of visual aids by the army, although one reason for restrictions on civilian use, points the way for us and may eventually help us solve some of the problems presented in this book.

Attractive format and readable style will add to the reader's enjoyment of this book. Again we emphasize its importance as required reading.

MARY REBECCA LINGENFELTER

Brookline, Pennsylvania

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*The School Library: A Handbook for Teacher-Librarians.* By the TEACHING STAFF OF THE COURSE OF LIBRARY TRAINING, UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN. Edited by R. F. M. IMMELMAN and D. H. VARLEY. Pp. iii+116. 5s.

For an American to evaluate a handbook for teacher-librarians in South Africa is, no doubt, presumptuous. There should be, however, certain similarities in library work in the two countries that would make mutual exchange of ideas helpful. Aims and objectives are approximately the same, and the function of the school library is well stated by Mr. Immelman, who says:

The modern curriculum stresses the use of many books rather than the single textbook; therefore, it has become imperative to-day to provide a large variety of books and other printed materials in the school. The school library is the logical agency for the collection of this material and for making it available to every pupil.

*The School Library* is a collection of brief articles written by different librarians, each article dealing with some phase of library organization and development. It is interesting to note that no school librarian is listed among the authors, who are members of the staff of the University of Cape Town Library or of the South African Public Library, Cape Town. The book, according to the Foreword, is designed "to be a practical guide to all aspects of school library work" and to emphasize "the needs of the teacher-librarian as distinct from the (full-time)



school librarian." The instructions in many instances seem to be abbreviated to such an extent that they become confusing rather than clear, and the concepts emphasized by the different authors tend sometimes to be divergent. The usefulness of the book would be enhanced by the addition of an index.

The directions for technical organization do not conform to those in general use in this country. Chapter iv, "The Librarian's Work," is composed of four sections: "Organizing the Library," "Preparing Books for Use," "Arranging Books on the Shelves," and "Recording Books in the Library." Directions for the accession record state, "When books are discarded, the accession number is used again for another book." If the accession register is written with ink—a loose-leaf book with typed entries is not suggested—the matter of erasing and re-erasing would seem to present a problem. In the discussion of cataloging and in the illustrations for catalog cards, the publisher's name is not listed as an item to be included on the card, although the place of publication, the date, and the series are so listed. The directions for form on the catalog card do not coincide with the illustration given. The form is quite different in spacing from that commonly used in America. Illustrations for forms for analytical entries do not include the classification number for the book, which would result in unnecessary delay to the catalog user in finding needed information for locating a book on the shelves. The shelf list, which has proved so useful to American teacher-librarians, is recommended as of secondary importance to the "accessions register and the author catalogue, which are indispensable." The method of circulation calls for small triangular book pockets with two edges each about 4 cm. (or  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inches) pasted to the inside book cover and book cards  $5 \times 8$  cm. (or  $2 \times 3\frac{1}{2}$  inches) on which are written the accession number and the surname of the author. No other information appears on the book card—not the title of the book, not the classification number, not the name of the borrower, not the date the book is due. A borrower's pocket  $2\frac{1}{2} \times 2$  inches is provided, in which the book card is placed when a book is taken from the library. These cards are then filed numerically by accession number unless overdue become a problem, in which case they may be filed first by date due and then numerically by accession number.

The material on teaching the use of books and libraries—on the book as a tool and how to

use it—is much easier to follow and as a whole conforms to the general suggestions currently followed in this country. The information is clearly and concisely presented.

The use of the central school library in South African schools seems to be less pronounced than in this country. Here the principle that a school of three hundred or more pupils needs a full-time librarian seems fairly well established in theory, if not in practice. Mr. Immelman states that "very few South African schools have a thousand pupils or more, which would justify them in employing a full-time school librarian . . . who would do nothing else but library work in the school all day long." One of the other authors calls attention to the need for keeping an attendance record of the number of "stray callers" as well as of whole classes coming to the library. This reviewer recalls the four hundred or more daily "stray callers" from a student body of less than six hundred who kept her more than busy all day as a full-time school librarian.

It is disturbing to note that titles, editions, authors, and addresses in a book of this kind were not carefully verified. Sears's *List of Subject Headings for Small Libraries* is referred to in one place as *List of subject headings for small public libraries* and in another as *Subject headings for small libraries*, 3d ed. (although the fourth edition was published in 1939); Smith's *Subject Headings for Children's Books* is referred to as *Subject headings for school libraries*; *Art and Craft Education* is referred to as an American rather than an English periodical. The address of the American Library Association is given as 86 E. Randolph Street, Chicago, although headquarters for the association were moved to 520 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago, in 1929. The bibliography of professional materials is fairly extensive and includes many American titles, but some of the newer important books, such as *Library Guidance for Teachers* by Walraven and Hall-Quest, *Reading with Children* by Eaton, and *Books, Libraries and You* by Boyd and others, have not been included.

*The School Library* is a publication which will be of considerable interest to all instructors and supervisors of school librarians and teacher-librarians in this country, regardless of the fact that it would not be satisfactory as a handbook for the American teacher-librarian herself. It contains much to stimulate further study of the whole question of children's reading needs. Mr. Varley states it well in his chapter on "Choosing

Books and Other Materials for the Library," where he says:

In the Union, for instance, as in America, many children grow to maturity without ever owning or reading a good book other than school text-books. . . . Two of the main factors, therefore, in the encouragement of good reading habits both here and in America, are the necessity of making good reading matter far more accessible than at present, and the provision and encouragement of facilities for private reading in and out of school, as distinct from set-book reading.

MARY PEACOCK DOUGLAS

*State Department of Public Instruction  
Raleigh, North Carolina*

*The Small Public Library: Organization, Administration, Service.* By L. MARION MOSHIER and HELENA S. LEFEVRE. Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. Pp. 142. \$1.50.

This volume "is planned to serve primarily the librarians and trustees of small public libraries—small merely in relation to material size" (Foreword, p. 3). In planning the outline the Editorial Committee of the American Library Association secured the assistance of library extension agencies in forty-three states and Canadian provinces. "Thus, it can be said that the manuscript has been cut to a pattern laid down by the agencies" (Foreword, p. 3).

Titles of the seven chapters and the number of pages in each indicate the scope of the book: "The Library and the Community" (6 pp.), "Organization and Government" (9 pp.), "The Library Staff" (8 pp.), "The Physical Plant" (14 pp.), "The Book Collection" (14 pp.), "Technical and Mechanical Procedures" (31 pp.), and "Library Service" (34 pp.). Emphasis is thus seen to be on technical and mechanical procedures and service. Four appendixes are included: "Supplies and Supply Houses," "Accredited Library Schools," "State and Provincial Library Extension Agencies," and "The Professional Shelf" (approximately seventy titles, exclusive of periodicals).

If the words of the authors are taken at their face value—"trustees are directors, not operators, of libraries" (p. 13), and "It is safe to assume that the minimum qualification [of the librarian] to strive for should be: 'graduation from a college or university . . . including one year of training in a library school. . . .'"

(p. 23)—there seems to be a fundamental conflict between the stated purpose of the book and its content and emphasis. If in small libraries trustees are concerned with policies rather than with details of library operations, and librarians are graduates of accredited library schools, there seems to be little need for addressing an elementary handbook to these two groups.

The volume is an excellent brief manual. It should be extremely valuable in libraries which employ personnel with little or no professional training but attempt in-service training. However, many trustees and librarians may possibly find valuable suggestions in a rapid reading of certain sections.

EDWARD A. WIGHT

*George Peabody College for Teachers*

*A Bibliography of British History (1700-1715): With Special Reference to the Reign of Queen Anne.* Vol. IV, by WILLIAM THOMAS MORGAN; Vol. V, by WILLIAM THOMAS MORGAN and CHLOE SENER MORGAN. Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University, 1942. Pp. xi+381; xiv+487. Vol. IV, \$6.00; Vol. V, \$7.00.

With these two volumes Professor and Mrs. Morgan complete a monumental work which has taken them about a quarter of a century. Some idea of the immensity of their task is conveyed by the statement that their Index occupies 344 double-columned pages. Titles of works beginning with the word "Historical" or "History" occupy twelve columns, with "Some," eight columns, and with "Remarks," three and one-half columns. And yet the work is selective. The authors refrain, in the Preface to Volume V, from attempting to define the principles of selection. Very modestly they state that they have tried to serve two masters, the historian and the literary scholar. They have, indeed, placed students of both branches of learning under a deep and lasting debt.

Volume IV is occupied by unpublished manuscripts, listed under the institutions housing them. No one is likely to complain that the aggregate of items is insufficient, for he can be sure that, however diligent, one pair of eyes could never read through all the manuscripts so patiently enumerated. The question may be asked, however, whether too many items of little intrinsic value are included and whether more description might not have been given to the

really significant items. Taking a couple of examples almost at random, we find: "King MSS. Letters and papers of Archbishop William King, 1689-1729. Trinity College Library, Dublin. 38 vols."; and "Copies of public accounts of England, 1697-1708, with other fees, estimates, etc. These were used by Dr. W. A. Shaw in editing the *Calendar of Treasury Papers*." The brevity of these entries is in sharp contrast to the importance of documents thus summarily dismissed. Reference might have been added as far as the first is concerned to Robert H. Murray's *Short Guide to Some MSS. in the Library of Trinity College, Dublin*, where the chief correspondents are named. As regards the second, the author follows an unfortunate precedent the reviewer set in his *Student's Guide to the MSS. Relating to English History in the Seventeenth Century in the Bodleian Library* in omitting mention of William Lowndes in describing the papers and also in the slip of entitling Dr. Shaw's work *Calendar of Treasury Papers* instead of "Books."

When dealing with collections in a given depository, examples of disproportion are not infrequent. In the account of the J. P. Morgan Library about twenty autographs of very little importance are listed separately, whereas some thousands of manuscripts at the Huntington Library are dismissed in just twice the space allotted to the Morgan Library manuscripts. Moreover, the Blathwayt Papers, inasmuch as they cover 1649-1717 in ten volumes, are described at too great length, and the Brydges Papers too shortly. Much work has been done sorting these manuscripts since Mr. E. L. Harvey described them in the *Huntington Library Bulletin*. Under the Hastings Papers, reference might have been made to the "Summary Report of the Huntington MSS" (*Huntington Library Bulletin*, No. 5). Some of the entries referring to long periods give very little idea of the number of records relating to 1700-1715. Thus among the Miscellaneous Papers in the Library of Congress are said to be seven thousand illustrating the history of prices in England, 1650-1750.

Volume V starts with supplements to Volumes I-III. This section includes works either omitted originally or published too late for inclusion in their right place. Occasionally one wonders at these additions. Why the *Autobiography* of Joseph Lister should be included is not clear, for although the author lived to what was then the great age of eighty-one, and died in

1709, apparently only eight lines of the autobiography refer to the eighteenth century. At the end of the supplements come some very useful lists of holders of offices, both clerical and lay.

No doubt a microscopic eye would detect many slips, such as styling H. C. Foxcroft "Mrs.," but only a cantankerous nature would stress them. Instead of grumbling that the authors failed to reach an impeccable standard, let us express our gratitude for a very notable addition to our bibliographical knowledge of the age of Queen Anne. A very short examination of this work will explain why, although S. R. Gardiner and other Stuart historians have been able to read most of the sources, whether printed or manuscript, for the early Stuarts, no one has been able to come near to performing the same feat for the last of the Stuarts. Thanks to Dr. and Mrs. Morgan, the historian who attempts the task will at least know the enormous bulk of material that awaits his investigation.

GODFREY DAVIES

*Huntington Library  
San Marino, California*

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*Resources of New York City Libraries: A Survey of Facilities for Advanced Study and Research.* By ROBERT B. DOWNS. Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. Pp. xiii+422. \$4.50.

Mr. Downs's admirable and expert study of the holdings of the libraries of Greater New York serves as an illuminating and educational guide to this reviewer, most of whose library life has been spent among these very institutions. Certainly, until Mr. Downs published these results of his amazing and profoundly careful researches, no one could have been fully conscious of the extent and scope of the library facilities for study in New York. Pride is a natural reaction.

Since "nearly 400 libraries are described or mentioned," it is obvious that the data had to be "concise and compact." Nevertheless, the facts are sufficiently definite and inclusive to serve the specialist in any subject.

The Introduction states that "the survey is concerned solely with resources for advanced study and research." Doubtless true; but its usefulness to the common or garden variety of student and to the inquirer at the small library

is nevertheless plain and adds materially to the value of the work. The objectives (all noble) are, according to Mr. Downs,

(1) to provide a basis for closer co-operation among libraries, including divisions of collecting fields and other forms of specialization; (2) to relieve the burden on the largest libraries by spreading library use among a considerable number of institutions; (3) to assist scholars, research workers, and students to find the best materials in their fields, particularly by locating and describing collections whose value is not sufficiently known.

The arrangement by broad subjects, with subdivisions listing in order of importance the collections of value, is sound and convenient, and the aggregate of subjects is highly impressive.

Mr. Downs says that, by limiting the task to the area covered by the city's five boroughs, it was practicable to see and study the collections at first hand. To have visited even half of these four hundred libraries was a monumental job and must have been educational not only as to the libraries but as to the city in general and its transportation systems. This reviewer has been visiting libraries in New York for twenty-five years and more and has not yet seen even superficially a third of them.

The impressive results of Mr. Downs's findings in the fields of economics and fine arts deserve quotation as summarized by him:

In no other field is there such a wealth of specialized libraries as in business, commerce and finance. The extensive resources of such general institutions as the New York Public Library, and Columbia and New York Universities are complemented by dozens of major and minor collections maintained in various types of business and industrial associations and companies.

The combined resources of New York City's libraries in the fine arts are among the richest in the world. In the extensive and varied collections of the New York Public Library, Columbia University, the Metropolitan Museum, Pierpoint Morgan Library, Frick Art Reference Library, Museum of Modern Art, Cooper Union, and many smaller institutions may be found a high proportion of the existing literature dealing with art subjects.

The admirable chapters on law and medicine were written by specialists. Alfred B. Lindsay and Fred B. Rothman clearly state the scope and degree of availability of numerous collections in the field of law, including some belonging to private firms of lawyers, some with im-

portant and rare material; and Thomas P. Fleming, medical librarian of Columbia, gives invaluable appraisal of the surprisingly numerous medical libraries of the city.

The study is so admirable that it is difficult to find reasons or excuses for adverse comment. Perhaps, however, it is legitimate to wonder why a few collections of negligible value were mentioned and why such an outstanding library in the field of sports as that of the Racquet and Tennis Club is omitted.

One is not wholly convinced of the advisability of excluding private libraries. There are some of the utmost importance, to which access surely is possible for a properly accredited scholar, notably the collection of incunabula and English literature prior to 1700 of Carl H. Pforzheimer, Esq., and also the practically complete library on tobacco owned by George Arents, Esq. (The latter is, to be sure, now temporarily at the estate of Mr. Arents in Westchester County.) If private libraries are excluded because of difficulty of access, one suspects that certain collections in business houses (some of which are listed) are even more difficult to see.

Doubtless Mr. Downs had to limit his survey to the city, but when he lists one important Catholic library (St. Joseph's Seminary at Dunwoodie in Westchester County) this reviewer cannot resist a wish that it had been practical to extend the boundaries to New Haven and Princeton, to include at least the South American, Scandinavian, and drama collections at Yale, and the Garrett manuscripts and the collections on astronomy, railroads, and corporation finance at Princeton.

When Mr. Downs issued his *Resources of Southern Libraries*, he set a laudable fashion. Now his still more useful *Resources of New York City Libraries* serves as a challenge for someone to go and do likewise for at least Boston and Washington. An indispensable feature of the study is the Bibliography (94 pp.) listing publications where details may be found of many of the collections mentioned. Doubtless the Union Catalogue in Philadelphia serves for the Philadelphian, but those of us unfortunate enough to live elsewhere might suggest that Mr. Downs release his energies on a "Resources of Philadelphia Libraries."

FRANKLIN F. HOPPER

New York Public Library

*Reference Service and Bibliography*, Vol. II, Part V: *Bibliography of Reference Books and Bibliographies*. By S. R. RANGANATHAN and K. M. SIVARAMAN. ("Madras Library Association Publication Series," No. 10.) Madras: Madras Library Association, 1941. Pp. 511.

Both the authors' and the reviewer's expectations of this volume (see *Library Quarterly*, XIII [1943], 84-85) have been in great measure disappointed.

The present world situation has prevented the fulfilment of the original intention to make the list of books far fuller and to examine each book personally by a visit to the chief national libraries of Europe and America, in view of the comparatively poor collection available in India.

In such circumstances a general expression of sympathy might be more appropriate than a critical review; nevertheless, the book has been published—for better or for worse—and it becomes the reviewer's duty to criticize as well as sympathize and, where he can, to congratulate as well as commiserate.

To "keep to the publishing programme of the Association" the authors decided in favor of a "provisional draft of the book," listing "titles that are available in India and that can be taken from published bibliographies." To the Western librarian a preliminary or partial list, limited to titles with which the authors were familiar, would have been much more useful, as its workmanship would presumably have been better and its scope would still have included the Eastern materials generally omitted from American-made bibliographies.

Mistaken omissions, mistaken inclusions, and faulty classification and description may, of course, be expected in any provisional draft, but in this case they bulk so numerous and result in such disproportion that it seems futile to attempt the usual contribution expected from the reviewer of a bibliography, i.e., suggestions for inclusion, exclusion, and correction in a future edition. For example, is the proportion of thirty-three pages on English literature to four pages for German, Norwegian, Latin, Italian, French, and Portuguese intentional, provisional, or merely fortuitous?

In this case, too, the reviewer cannot, for want of something better to say, offer a list of misspellings, presumably due to faulty proof-reading. There are too many of them; and, although this reviewer feels tolerant of such mis-

prints as "Cannon Law" for "Canon Law" (which probably won't fool anybody even in these days) and even "Arabic" for "Aramaic" (which is misleading only until one reads the titles of the books listed under it), he cannot help distrusting a bibliography which so frequently misspells entry words—"Afstancer" for "Afstanger," "Dafoe" for "Defoe," "Foxcoft" for "Foxcroft," "Schpiro" for "Schapiro," etc., etc.

Besides the query as to the relative proportions of the different parts of the list, another question of general scope is: What is a reference book? The authors define reference books "neither by function nor with the aid of the terminology of the art of classification [viz., form-classes] but in reference to the internal . . . structure of the book." A reference book "is not made up of continuous writing or exposition. . . ." And they specifically exclude periodicals, "compendious treatises," and textbooks from their list of "structural varieties of reference books." (They also omit anthologies as a variety but include a number of anthology titles in their book lists.)

The reviewer believes—and probably most other librarians believe—that the functional definition ("a book that one looks up for specific information") is the correct one. The structure (dictionary, graphic, diagrammatic, tabular, etc.) may make it a better reference book or a "ready-reference" book; but we all agree that any book may be called on to serve reference purposes, and the weakness of all lists of reference books is their limitation to the structurally ready-reference type of book, to the exclusion of subjects important enough to be represented on the reference shelf by the best book available for looking up specific information—even if it is only a textbook. Furthermore, the exclusion of periodicals would, in certain subjects, leave a reference collection that would be seldom referred to (the authors do include bibliographical periodicals, abstracts, and yearbooks).

Speaking of structure, the reviewer cannot forbear remarking that, for reference purposes, a minutely classified list such as this is less "ready" than one arranged in broad classes or in "dictionary style" or in a combination of broad classes alphabetically subdivided. However, the generous Index (pp. 409-511) mitigates if it does not entirely meet this objection. A more serious difficulty in ready reference is the substitution, in the case of titles published



since 1880, of alphabetical symbols in the book number for imprint dates after the name of place or publisher.

Finally, to come back to the content of the book, the virtues of the partial bibliography which the reviewer would have preferred are by no means entirely lost in the more extended provisional list. Occasionally, in all sorts of places, the reference librarian will find a title supplementary to our usual reference bibliographies; the linguistics section, running to sixty-three pages, is, for the most part, an extensive list of bilingual dictionaries; and the oriental geographical divisions (especially India, pp. 2-298) and linguistic divisions (pp. 15 ff.) deserve the careful study of both reference and acquisition librarians in American research libraries.

On these things, we congratulate the authors; the faults, if they are faults, are venial; and, in any case, we wish the authors better luck next time.

HENRY B. VAN HOESSEN

*Brown University Library*

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*Subject Guide to Reference Books.* By HERBERT S. HIRSHBERG. Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. Pp. xvi+259. \$4.00.

An alphabetical subject guide to reference materials in all fields has not been before attempted, although convenient aids to the location of material in certain limited areas of knowledge have proved of great value. The idea of a ready reference key to sources of information is an excellent one, and librarians will find this *Guide* of considerable worth. It is primarily for the use of the beginner working with a popular, rather than a scholarly, collection instead of for the experienced reference librarian. A small proportion of the titles are in languages other than English. It is difficult for the reviewer to imagine the effective use of the *Subject Guide* as a textbook or manual in a course on reference materials.

Under two hundred and forty-six topics or units, arranged in alphabetical order, the user is referred to the authors and titles of bibliographies, dictionaries, encyclopedias, and other sources where information relating to the unit may be found. Exact bibliographical citation is omitted for most entries. Ample cross-references to appropriate topics are provided, thus obviating the consultation of an index. The selection of units was based on a study of inquiries

at the main library and certain branches of the Cleveland Public Library, the Akron Public Library, and the Western Reserve University Library. The body of the work is followed by (1) titles of books referred to and not included in Mudge, *Guide to Reference Books and Supplements*, 1935-40; (2) an introduction to a course of reference work offered at Western Reserve University; and (3) an index to authors referred to under the subject units.

In a closer examination of certain units one becomes aware of unevenness, paucity of suggestion, and surprising omissions. For example, under "Forests and Forestry," Alfred Rehder's *The Bradley Bibliography: A Guide to the Literature of the Woody Plants of the World* is omitted; while under the unit "Zoology," an equally important bibliography, Casey A. Wood's *An Introduction to the Literature of Vertebrate Zoology* is included. Of the five entries under "Trees and Shrubs," to which one is referred from "Forests and Forestry," three are general works and two are to trees of the Rocky Mountain area. Under "Treaties" reference is made to collections of treaties of the United States and of Latin America and to the League of Nations "Treaty Series." No suggestion is offered for the texts of international agreements for earlier periods of European history. Of the nine entries under "Names, Geographical" one is general, two entries are for English place-names, two American, two Greek and Roman, and two to such general sources as Webster's *New International Dictionary* and the *Lincoln Library*. No mention is made of the publications of the English place-name society or to the bibliography of place-names in Arthur G. Kennedy's *Bibliography of Writings on the English Language*. Occasionally, though not consistently, reference is made to a bibliography which has appeared in a periodical. For example, under the unit on "Gardening" a list that appeared in the *Library Journal* is indicated.

Unnecessary effort appears to have been expended in analyzing the familiar and the obvious. There are thirty-one citations to the *World Almanac*, forty-one to the *Lincoln Library*, and nineteen to the *Britannica Book of the Year*. Could it not be assumed that anyone capable of answering reference questions would know that the text of the Constitution of the United States, a list of American colleges and universities, a perpetual calendar, tables of weights and measures, a great variety of statistical data, and twenty-six similar subjects are to be found in

the *World Almanac*? In fairness, attention should be called to the more unusual units—disasters, fugitives, mottoes, nicknames, slogans—in which the suggested sources of information might not readily come to mind.

Since specialization is slow of attainment even in large and scholarly libraries and since the reference librarian cannot be equally conversant with all departments of knowledge, the need for keys and analytical indexes to the more unusual and difficult fields is urgent. A series of subject guides prepared by specialists in such subjects as military and naval science, meteorology, metallurgy, and petroleum technology, to name a few, would find an enthusiastic reception. The author is to be commended for his effort in preparing the *Subject Guide to Reference Books*. It may prove an incentive and serve as a model in form and convenience of arrangement.

EDITH M. COULTER

University of California

*Newspaper Indexing*. By HARRY R. FRIEDMAN.  
Milwaukee: Marquette University Press,  
1942. Pp. viii+261.

As indicated by the title, the book deals primarily with the indexing of newspapers. The principles on which the author bases his directions as regards choice of heading, arrangement, alphabetizing, etc., are, however, in approximate agreement with those accepted by the best authorities on bibliographic entry, and there is no good reason, therefore, why his work should not prove a safe guide also in the indexing of other publications.

Unfortunately, "indexing" and "cataloging" are in the minds of a great many lay people regarded as synonymous terms. Anyone with a little experience in both lines of endeavor will, of course, realize immediately how erroneous is this assumption. True, one can visualize a combination of the two; that is, a catalog so minute in its selection of entries that it might serve as both index and catalog. However, the expense of such a record, except for a very small library, would be prohibitive and its extent likely to cause an early breakdown. Librarians are therefore forced to set definite limits to the scope or inclusiveness of their catalogs. The writer recalls a library about to reorganize its catalog which had actually gone as far as to prescribe entries for all articles of more than twenty pages

in encyclopedias and other composite publications. Fortunately for the institution, the practice was stopped before much harm had been done. Most large libraries will omit entries for articles in periodicals, publications of societies, and other serials. The tendency is to limit entries to independent books, monographs, and a selection of the more important pamphlets. They feel that even with a few million printed cards available, the best they can do is to direct the searcher for information found in periodicals, newspapers, and other composite literature to special indexes—some general, that is, covering several publications; the majority, including most newspaper indexes, limited to one.

Cataloging and indexing have many problems in common, such as choice of heading, condensation of information, distinguishing between several persons of the same or similar names, alphabetizing, and arrangement of entries. Mr. Friedman favors word-for-word instead of letter-for-letter alphabetizing, for which he is to be commended. The return by some libraries to the latter somewhat antediluvian method is probably based on the idea that it will require less mental effort on the part of the public. Let us hope that it is a mere passing fancy, fostered by certain good old souls who look upon the public as infants in arms to be fed by the spoon and bottle method and under no consideration to be called upon to apply a little brain matter in the use of the catalog. The writer has been told that there are libraries which arrange as follows:

Real estate agents	Real estate—Promotion
Real estate—Laws	Real estate—Statistics
Real estate mortgages	Real estate taxes

instead of

Real estate—Laws	Real estate agents
Real estate—Promotion	Real estate mortgages
Real estate—Statistics	Real estate taxes

Whoever favors such an arrangement must be laboring under the delusion that avoidance of all logical subordination in an alphabetical catalog will facilitate its use. Imagine a large dictionary catalog arranged on such a basis; what a chaos must be the ultimate result! A careful study of Mr. Friedman's chapter viii may here be in order.

The author has in his treatment of names with prefixes in general followed the best precedents. Occasional departures in case of prefixes that have come to us from Germanic or Ro-

mance languages are based on the reasonable assumption that American newspaper indexes deal predominantly with persons who live in America. For the purpose of distinguishing between persons of the same name the author, no doubt for good and valid reasons, prefers designations which indicate occupation, profession, place of residence, nationality, etc., to dates of birth and death, so freely used for the same purpose in catalogs. In a short chapter on space allotment the author's conclusions agree with those of the catalogers who have made similar investigations that the letters *B*, *M*, and *S* require the most liberal allotment of space.

An interesting departure from the form of heading favored by most American catalogs is that noted in the entry of public officials, bureaus, and offices. The entry here prescribed is under the name of the office or the title of the official, e.g., "Secretary of state," "Attorney general," etc., the name of the state or country being added for the purpose of identification, e.g., "Secretary of state (Wisconsin)." It is the same method as the one followed in part in some countries of Continental Europe, e.g., Italy, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and France. Similarly, designations such as "streets," "parks," and the like are entered not as subdivisions under the name of the city, as prescribed in the Library of Congress lists of subdivisions under cities, but under the headings "Streets," "Parks," with the name of the city added in parentheses.

A chapter is devoted to cumulative indexing. No definite reference appears to be made to any very extensive cumulation to cover a long series of years. Perhaps the expense of such an undertaking has proved too great. It would be interesting, nevertheless, if a paper like the *Chicago Tribune* should decide to celebrate its one hundredth anniversary by the publication of a great index to cover 1847 to date in one alphabetic sequence of entries. We all realize the immense importance and value of such a publication. Unfortunately, the cost would likely be prohibitive unless other newspapers, libraries, learned societies, and perhaps the government should co-operate. To be worth while such an index would, of course, have to be compiled under the direction of experts and according to definite and well-defined rules.

A careful perusal of Mr. Friedman's book will correct any notion that indexing is a simple operation, a mere copying of names and catchwords as they appear in the work to be indexed.

Perhaps this may apply to some extent in case of an index to a single book, or indexes compiled on a hit-or-miss basis without much reference to rules or methods. If, on the other hand, the directions contained in the present guide are followed, the librarian or cataloger will soon discover that in indexing he is confronted by approximately the same problems as those with which he must contend in the preparation of a catalog or bibliography, even down to names of married women, noblemen, and oriental and classical writers, pseudonyms, prefixes, corporate bodies, titles, etc. True, the indexer of a newspaper has an advantage in that he deals with one language only; but, even so, if his work is to be done well and stand up, it must be based on thorough experience and a wide grasp of subjects. He is another to whom one may well apply the words of the old Roman, "*Nihil humanum me alienum puto.*"

J. C. M. HANSON

*Sister Bay, Wisconsin*

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*Records of the Columbia Historical Society of Washington. D.C., 1940-41, Vols. XLII-XLIII. Edited by NEWMAN F. MCGIRR. Washington: The Society, 1942. Pp. viii+309. \$3.50.*

It is a well-known fact that with few exceptions local history publications possess little merit. This publication is not among the exceptions.

Primarily responsible for this low state of affairs is the disinterest of trained historians in local history. Students of local history such as Miss Bessie Pierce of the University of Chicago are indeed rare. For the most part local history has been and is being written not by trained historians but by antiquarians—i.e., those with an amateur's interest in history but with no understanding of the technique or the purpose of historical research. Knowledge of the rules of historical evidence, or the ability to distinguish the trivial from the significant, is always lacking in the typical output of the antiquarian.

Of the twelve essays in this volume, five were written by Mr. Allen C. Clark, president of the society. Mr. Clark takes as his subject various places and persons connected with Washington; nowhere does he go beyond the mere boring details of antiquarianism. That Mr. Clark also writes without benefit of editorial supervision is

evident from this by no means atypical sentence: "Between him and Barry was an intimate relationship and Barry assisted if not in a financial way did in an advisory."

Other essays in the volume include a brief account of the relations between Hawaii and the United States by Samuel W. King, delegate in Congress from Hawaii; a disjointed memoir of the people he has met as a publicist and traveler by Randolph Blinn; and an apparently aimless article on Peter Force by Newman F. McGirr.

Easily best among these essays are the account by Elizabeth Bethel on the "Material in the National Archives Relating to the Early History of the District of Columbia" and the article by Charles O. Paullin on "Virginia's Glebe near Washington." Mr. Paullin, it should be remarked, has his likes and dislikes. To him glebe is a "pleasurable" word, whereas Massachusetts is "one of the ugliest words in the American language."

LOUIS KAPLAN

*University of Wisconsin*

"Contributions toward a Special Library Glossary." Prepared for the A.L.A. Committee on Library Terminology by LINDA H. MORLEY, with the assistance of MARY LOUISE ALEXANDER, MARGUERITE D. BURNETT, FLORENCE A. GRANT, WALTER HAUSDORFER, and REBECCA B. RANKIN. New York: Special Libraries Association, 1943. Pp. 20. \$0.35 (mimeographed).

The branch of the library profession which has come to be known as "special" has had an organized existence of about thirty-three years. Especially in the earlier years, many of its members came from the public or college library field and brought with them methods, techniques, practices, and terms with which they were familiar in their previous experience.

Gradually these methods, techniques, and practices were adapted to the demands and needs of a rapidly developing and expanding "new" profession. In the process the old terms which served to describe various phases of the work of the special libraries necessarily ac-

quired added or different meanings, while no new words and few new phrases were adopted.

This is evident in the recently issued "Contributions toward a Special Library Glossary." Any member of the library profession glancing at the terms only, might rightly question the necessity of this publication. However, if one reads the definitions, one finds that the old terms have acquired new meanings, many of them not very different from the generally accepted meaning except for some extension, adaptation, or specific application. For instance, a "reader" in general library parlance is usually another name for a patron. In the special library, however, a "reader" is a staff member who scans current materials to select articles, etc., pertinent to the work of the organization.

The group of special librarians who agreed to co-operate with the American Library Association Committee on Library Terminology selected and defined the terms included in the Glossary as those in more or less common use. Since the A.L.A. Committee cannot incorporate all of them in its Glossary and must make use of much briefer definitions, it was decided to assemble these terms as a tentative list with the object of arousing discussion; with a view to revision; and with the hope of securing suggested additions, changes, and improvements.

I am sure that the compilers would be the first to say that this is not a finished product; and special librarians would be the first to agree that this publication is nothing more than a challenge to them to evolve a terminology more suited to their needs. Just as for years the designations "special librarian" and "special library" have been unsatisfactory because of the impossibility of proper definition, so the terms and definitions set down here are equally unsatisfactory.

If, therefore, this glossary serves to rouse the profession to a determination either to evolve a new terminology or to crystallize a common terminology among its members, the publication of this tentative list will have served its purpose.

RUTH SAVORD

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New York City*

## BOOK NOTES

*American Opinion and the War.* By ARCHIBALD MACLEISH. New York: Macmillan Co., 1942. Pp. 32. \$0.75.

In this brief essay the author contends that the recent pronouncements of Vice-President Wallace, Sumner Welles, and others who have spoken on war aims reflect the prevailing attitude in the United States. "It was the profound and creative interest of the people which produced these declarations and others like them," says Mr. MacLeish, "not the declarations which produced the public interest." The argument, presented with eloquence and conviction, was delivered as the Rede Lecture at the University of Cambridge.

*China's Gifts to the West.* By DERK BODDE. ("Asiatic Studies in American Education," No. 1.) Washington: American Council on Education, 1942. Pp. v+40. \$0.35.

The American Council on Education offers this as the first in its series aimed at increasing understanding and appreciation of the Far East. The presentation is clear and interesting throughout, and excellent reproductions contribute to the value of the pamphlet. Among the Chinese contributions which receive attention are silk, tea, porcelain, gunpowder, paper, and printing; librarians will be particularly interested in the lucid exposition of the development of the latter two. The pamphlet sets a high standard for succeeding issues.

*Thomas Hardy in Maine.* By CARL J. WEBER. ("Keepsake," No. 16.) Portland, Me.: Southworth-Anthoensen Press, 1942. Pp. 21.

The Hardy collection at Colby College, Waterville, Maine, was the basis for this engaging "Keepsake." It contains a few anecdotes concerning Hardy's novels and their readers in Maine, but perhaps of greatest interest are the bibliographical adventures of the author in tracing a variant reading in *Far from the Madding Crowd*, which are described with considerable charm.

*Plans for World Peace through Six Centuries.* By SYLVESTER JOHN HEMLEBEN. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943. Pp. xiv+227. \$2.50.

This is a concise but scholarly résumé of the centuries-long growth in the articulateness of man's formulation of a desire for stable and permanent world peace. The main contribution lies in the integrated presentation of the historical antecedents of contemporary proposals for supranational or-

ganization. Only about fifty pages are devoted to the period since 1914, though the author states that that period has seen a larger number of peace plans than any other time in history. Nor is there any attempt to analyze the various peace plans that have been proposed, save in very general terms in the closing chapter. The author is head of the department of history and social studies, school of education, Fordham University.

*Newspaper Discrimination: An Annotated Bibliography.* By EDGAR DALE and VERA SPICER. ("Series 1—Modern Media of Education," Vol. I, No. 6.) Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, 1942. Pp. iv+27. \$0.25.

The Foreword to this bibliography claims that high-school students place "a high valuation on triviality, excitement, distraction, competition, relaxation; and a low valuation on insight, understanding, information, cooperation, and interpretation." These forty-five digests of articles here included are aimed at helping the teacher to inculcate principles of correct newspaper reading, presumably to bring about a revaluation among students.

*The High School Science Library for 1941-42.* By HANOR A. WEBB. Reprinted from the *Peabody Journal of Education*, Vol. XX (November, 1942). Pp. 22. \$0.15.

The eighteenth compilation of science books by Mr. Webb follows the organization of previous lists in the series. The selection of titles to conform to budgets of varying size is a valuable feature. Though the annotations are too brief to be altogether satisfactory they may serve as a point of departure for librarians needing further information. Copies may be obtained from the author, who is on the faculty of the George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

*Indexing and Alphabetizing Simplified.* By VERA A. AVERY and FREIDA KRAINES. New York: Pamphlet Distributing Co., 1942. Pp. 19. \$0.50.

This pamphlet is designed to aid clerical workers who are responsible for the care of office records. The rules which are advocated are few and well selected and are in line with those which some librarians have been proposing in the way of simplified filing. An extensive list prepared to illustrate the application of the recommended rules is also included. Because the pamphlet is not concerned with



the detailed rules generally found necessary for complex library filing, such as the instructions for arranging voluminous authors or complicated subjects, it is of limited use to librarians.

*Library Bulletin*, Vol. I, No. 1 (April, 1942). Calcutta: Indian Library Association.

This new quarterly journal is the organ of the Indian Library Association, and its columns will be of interest essentially to members of that organization. The first issue contains a general review of the fifth All-India Library Conference, as well as three addresses to the conferees. Of perhaps wider interest is "A Revised Schedule of the Decimal Classification of Insecta," proposed by Mr. Roy of the Linlithgow Library.

*An Appraisal of the Protocols of Zion*. By JOHN S. CURTISS. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. [ix]+118. \$1.00.

Librarians have long been familiar with the so-called "Protocols of Zion," a document which has periodically been revived to "prove" the existence of a Jewish plot for world domination. The Protocols have been denounced as false, but in this appraisal the reader has available for the first time a lucid and objective analysis, using techniques of historical scholarship. The study is published under the sponsorship of a group of distinguished American historians who "individually accept and endorse [it] as completely destructive of the historicity of the Protocols and as establishing beyond doubt the fact that they are rank and pernicious forgeries." Aside

from its more obvious values, the volume is extremely interesting as an example of historical method. It deserves wide reading.

*The Use of a Technical Library*. By W. E. JORGENSEN. ("Circular Series," No. 6.) Corvallis, Ore.: Oregon State Engineering Experiment Station, 1942. Pp. 24. \$0.25.

Although this slim pamphlet was prepared as a guide to patrons of the Engineering and Technology Reference Room of the Oregon State College Library, it will prove useful to all interested in the literature of engineering and technology. The more common sources of information in all fields of engineering are presented, as well as the official patent literature. Most of the material will be familiar to technology librarians, but engineering students can gain much in time and efficiency by familiarizing themselves with the contents of this pamphlet.

*Proposed Post-war Works Program, the City of New York, as Supplemented October, 1942*. Prepared by the CITY PLANNING COMMISSION. New York, 1942. Pp. viii+32. \$0.25.

Whatever other cities are doing to anticipate a post-war program, New York will not be caught unprepared. This pamphlet testifies brilliantly to the power of imagination based firmly on realism. All major aspects of municipal life and institutions are considered and preliminary plans drawn up. The Planning Commission reports "the lack of a comprehensive plan or program for libraries" and asks for \$47,000 for an immediate city-wide survey.

## BOOKS RECEIVED

- Above All Liberties.* By ALEC CRAIG. London: George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1942. (American distributors, W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., New York.) Pp. 205. \$2.50.
- Aerial Photographs: Their Use and Interpretation.* By A. J. EARDLEY. ("Harper's Geoscience Series.") New York: Harper & Bros., 1942. Pp. xxii+203.
- American Opinion and the War.* By ARCHIBALD MACLEISH. New York: Macmillan Co., 1942. Pp. 32. \$0.75.
- Annual Catalogue of Australian Publications, No. 6—1941.* Compiled by the COMMONWEALTH NATIONAL LIBRARY under the direction of KENNETH BINNS. Canberra: L. F. Johnston, Commonwealth Government Printer, 1942. Pp. ii+93. 2s.
- Basic Principles of Weather Forecasting.* By VICTOR P. STARR. ("Harper's Geoscience Series.") New York: Harper & Bros., 1942. \$3.00.
- Basic Verities: Prose and Poetry.* By CHARLES PÉGUY, edited and translated by ANN and JULIAN GREEN. New York: Pantheon Books, Inc., 1943. Pp. 282. \$2.75.
- A Bibliography of Latin American Bibliographies.* By C. K. JONES. 2d ed. ("Library of Congress Hispanic Foundation Latin American Series," No. 2.) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942. \$0.40.
- A Cataloging Manual for Law Libraries.* By ELSIE BASSET. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. 365. \$5.00.
- A Check List of Cumulative Indexes to Individual Periodicals in the New York Public Library.* Compiled by DANIEL C. HASKELL. New York: New York Public Library, 1942. Pp. 370. \$6.00.
- China's Gifts to the West.* By DERK BODDE. ("Asiatic Studies in American Education," No. 1.) Washington: American Council on Education, 1942. Pp. v+40. \$0.35.
- "Contributions toward a Special Library Glossary." Prepared for the A.L.A. Committee on Library Terminology by LINDA H. MORLEY, with the assistance of MARY LOUISE ALEXANDER, MARGUERITE D. BURNETT, FLORENCE A. GRANT, WALTER HAUSDORFER, and REBECCA B. RANKIN. New York: Special Libraries Association, 1943. Pp. 20. \$0.35 (mimeographed).
- Co-operative Effort in Schools To Improve Reading: Proceedings of the Conference on Reading Held at the University of Chicago, Vol. IV.* Compiled and edited by WILLIAM S. GRAY. ("Supplementary Educational Monographs," No. 56.) Chicago: University of Chicago, 1942. Pp. xi+338. \$2.00.
- Current Ideas in State Legislatures, 1940-1941: A Review of Laws Enacted during the Biennium.* Compiled by MARGARET W. STEWART. ("Library of Congress Legislative Service State Law Index: State Law Digest," Rept. No. 6.) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942. \$0.15.
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